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ABSTRACT

Intended for use as a reference volume by elementary and secondary school administrators, this annotated bibliography is divided into 20 chapters, each containing summaries of from 11 to 18 documents and journal articles (indexed in ERIC) on a topic of current interest to school administrators. The materials annotated were selected to give the reader a good idea of the major issues and proposed solutions in each of the 20 areas. (PKP)

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The Best of the Best of ERIC

Volume 2

1979
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Preface

This volume has been compiled with the busy school administrator in mind. We have taken the best literature the ERIC system has to offer, extracted the most important information it contains, and presented this material in an easy-to-use form. *The Best of the Best of ERIC,* Volume 2 is intended for use as a handy reference volume. Each chapter contains annotations of the prime literature on a topic of current interest to the school administrator. A quick perusal of any chapter gives the reader a good idea of major issues and proposed solutions to problems in each of the twenty areas. Each chapter contains reviews of eleven to eighteen reports and journal articles selected for their currency, relevance, and practical value.

The Best of the Best combines and updates issues twenty-one through forty of *The Best of ERIC,* our annotated bibliography series. It contains 127 new annotations of reports and journal articles that have become available since the original issues of *The Best of ERIC* were published. Several entries that appeared in the original series have been rewritten and expanded. Items no longer relevant have been omitted. The volume contains a total of 307 annotations.

The Clearinghouse on Educational Management published the first issue of *The Best of ERIC* in September 1974. Four years and forty issues later, the series has earned the distinction of being a unique attempt to present readily usable information in the ERIC system to school practitioners. This volume is the culmination of our efforts to deliver to school administrators the crème de la crème—the best of the best of ERIC.

Philip K. Piele
Director

ERIC and ERIC/CEM

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system operated by the National Institute of Education. ERIC serves the educational community by disseminating educational research results and other resource information that can be used in developing more effective educational programs.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, one of several clearinghouses in the system, was established at the University of Oregon in 1966. The Clearinghouse and its companion units process research reports and journal articles for announcement in ERIC's index and abstract bulletins.

Research reports are announced in *Resources in Education (RIE)*, available in many libraries and by subscription for $42.70 a year from the United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Most of the documents listed in *RIE* can be purchased through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, operated by Computer Microfilm International Corporation.

Journal articles are announced in *Current Index to Journals in Education*. *CIJE* is also available in many libraries and can be ordered for $62 a year from Macmillan Information, 100D Brown Street, Riverside, New Jersey 08075. Semiannual cumulations can be ordered separately.

Besides processing documents and journal articles, the Clearinghouse has another major function—information analysis and synthesis. The Clearinghouse prepares bibliographies, literature reviews, state-of-the-knowledge papers, and other interpretive research studies on topics in its educational area.

The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the Center for Educational Policy and Management for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the Center for Educational Policy and Management or the National Institute of Education.

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Advisory Committees

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1 **Carpenter, C. C.** "Principal Leadership and Parent Advisory Groups." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 56, 6 (February 1975), pp. 426-27. EJ 110 933.

The principal is in a unique position to affect the success or failure of the local school's parent advisory group. Only through the provision of positive leadership can the principal guide the group to constructive pursuits. The first and most important function of the principal is to make sure the advisory group is aware of its limits, its responsibilities, and the possibilities open before it.

The second function is one of mediation. The principal is the communications link between the advisory group and the central administration and employees' organizations. Each must be made aware of the concerns, the legal rights, and the obligations of the others.

Finally, the principal must use his or her professional expertise to see that the advisory group does not act out of haste or emotion, but considers all sides of every issue. Only a carefully thought-out decision will stand up under criticism, and only positive results will hold the advisory group together, as well as assure the group's continued respect from the principal and the school.

2 **Davies, Don.** "Making Citizen Participation Work." *National Elementary Principal*, 55, 4 (March/April 1976), pp. 20-29. EJ 134 458.

Citizen participation in school governance, Davies writes, is rooted in the antipoverty programs and civil rights, antiwar, and consumer movements of the past decades. It is also the natural reaction to the skyrocketing costs and seldom-realized expectations of education and other human services. The public has come to question the experts and officeholders and demand more responsive institutions.

Davies critically views citizen participation in education and concludes, "The quantity is high; quality and impact are lagging far behind." School-initiated programs are too often merely "window dressing" or "placating" mechanisms. Davies responds with nine goals for more effective participation, all centering on local strategies and leadership.

The school council is for Davies a means of realizing his goals of increased democracy, decentralization, and school-community collaboration. Such councils, composed of parents, citizens, students, and teachers, "should emerge as the predominant mode" of such collaboration. Initiated with clearly defined functions and authority, the councils can engage in such activities as setting school budget priorities, identifying goals and priorities for the schools, joining in the selection and evaluation of teachers and principals, and reviewing new programs.

Davies provides some general guidelines for effective councils. Citizens and existing parent groups should participate from the start in developing a council. Council members should be elected, not appointed, and should represent a cross section of the community. And of special importance, council and principal will need to develop a "cooperative and mutually supportive relationship."

3 **Downing, Charles J.** "Advisory Committees: Telling or Helping." *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, 12, 1 (October 1977), pp. 20-24. EJ 169 307.

With most government programs requiring community involvement, citizen advisory committees have become almost permanent fixtures in the schools—for better or worse. In the abstract, public participation may be a desirable goal, but many administrators have come to resent the encroachments of "pushy" nonprofessionals. At a recent workshop, for example, a chorus of administrators expressed their frustration with volunteer groups that seem to have taken over the reins of the schools.

But this antipathy does not have to exist: advisory committees can be valuable adjuncts to professional management. Downing cites the Lake Tahoe (California) school district's successful experience with advisory committees as an example of citizen involvement at its best. In an anonymous survey of staff working with volunteer groups, 100 percent of the respondents felt that advisory committees were a helpful part of the regular department and should be continued.

The accomplishments of the groups working on guidance and special education were particularly noteworthy. The key to their success, Downing says, was the members' sense that they were performing meaningful tasks. Before the committees started, the Lake Tahoe public had been uncertain of the functions of the guidance and special education departments; these programs had consequently stagnated. More input, both personal and financial, was needed. After demanding training sessions, the committees evolved numerous tacks to strengthen the programs: for example, they initiated a local Special Olympics and promoted newspaper coverage of counseling activities.

The guidance committee also designed and implemented a districtwide parent education system and oversaw the development of a student tutoring project. Political action was also pursued: the Special Education Advisory Committee succeeded in placing two of their members on the governing boards of regional agencies, and the guidance committee actively supported state aid for needed services.

The Lake Tahoe experience is tangible evidence that when administrators bring themselves to give citizens' committees significant tasks, they may well be repaid with public support and significant improvement in local education.

4 **Eisenberger, Katherine E.** "How *Much* Should You Involve Your Community in Picking Your Next Superintendent?" and **Erickson, Kenneth,** and **Shinn, James.** "And How Much Is *Too* Much Community Involvement?" *American School Board Journal*, 162, 11 (November 1975), pp. 33-34, 64. EJ 127 612 and 127 613.

A growing number of districts are involving the community in their superintendent selection process. Such involvement, if well-managed, can significantly improve the selection process and help

2 guarantee a closer tie among superintendent, board, and community, Eisenberger believes. She presents a six-step plan for effective community participation in the process, which makes use of an advisory committee.

After it formulates a set of ground rules, the board can create a selection advisory committee of citizen leaders, students, administrators, and teachers. The committee can use selection criteria based on district needs and goals to evaluate the candidates and select semifinalists for further review. The board and committee can next separately interview the semifinalists, before the board chooses the finalists. The finalists can then participate in structured school-community interviews, in which citizens direct questions to the candidates through the board. Through this process, candidates can hear community concerns at firsthand and see the board in action, and the new superintendent should gain broad-based support from the start.

Erickson and Shinn add a case history to Eisenberger's model as they describe one district's use of an advisory committee to screen applicants. They focus on the procedures they employed as consultants to aid the citizens, who had no previous experience in reviewing professional papers. Although the committee required more time for planning, preparation, and participation, the community is happy with the results, they conclude.

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5 **Greenwood, Gordon E.,** and others. "Citizen Advisory Committees." *Theory into Practice*, 16, 1 (February 1977), pp. 12-16. EJ 163 152.

Parent involvement in the schools has traditionally been limited to middle-class parents and to activities outside the decision-making process. But beginning in the sixties, parents—particularly those with low incomes—have joined in decision-making, as federal law has mandated advisory committees for new federal programs. Some states are now also mandating school advisory committees.

The authors, drawing on their work with advisory committees in Florida, critically examine all aspects of such committees, including committee functions, operation, and evaluation. Their examination brings many valuable suggestions for practitioners.

Schools may have difficulty, they state, in recruiting low-income and minority parents for their committees, because of distrust built up over the years and child care and transportation problems. A special membership committee can help seek out these needed parents. The committee can operate by dividing the school's attendance area into sections and identifying social leaders for each. These leaders can recommend prospective members, whom the committee should personally invite to join, perhaps by home visit. Parent volunteers can help solve the new members' child care and transportation problems.

The authors also suggest use of a "parent involvement specialist" to help solve the attitude problems of both administrators, who may feel threatened, and parents, who may feel unqualified. The specialist, perhaps a regular staff member released part time, could conduct inservice training for administrators and parents and ease communication problems as necessary.

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6 **Haugen, Percy; Dillman, Gene;** and **Brown, Lee.** "School/Community Involvement at the Secondary Level." *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 6, 3 (January 1977), pp. 14-16. EJ 159 818.

This article reports on the community participation effort of the Fairfield-Suisun Unified School District, California. Though short on critical discussion, it illustrates some effective uses of advisory committees, highlighting their roles in program development and improvement.

The district's new competency-based education program owes much to citizen involvement. A joint committee of citizens and staff helped develop its new curriculum. Newly constituted public service and industry-education advisory councils, respectively composed of government and business representatives, guide the district's new career majors. Vocational, agricultural, and home economics councils also help direct programs and promote off-campus activities. The district expects that this involvement will improve its course offerings and thus increase the employability of its graduates.

Advisory councils, composed of parents, students, and teachers, operate at each school and discuss such topics as personalized learning, school organization, and community-based learning. The councils divide into subcommittees to study and advise on specific program concerns.

Other district efforts at community involvement include a scholarship council, surveys of parent concerns, a plan to promote teacher-parent contact, and a series of call-in parent meetings, in which the schools invite small groups of parents for discussion of policies and programs.

Six other articles in this issue of *Thrust* discuss community involvement.

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7 **Hofstrand, Richard K.,** and **Phipps, Lloyd J.** *Advisory Councils for Education: A Handbook*. Urbana: Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Illinois, 1971. 49 pages. ED 057 213.

Administrators planning to organize a citizens committee or looking for answers to questions about such groups should put this handbook on their reading list. Five chapters of detailed, straightforward information discuss benefits, organization, development, and functions of advisory groups.

Administrators and boards of education are realizing the benefits of citizens committees—advice and assistance and better use of time and resources. Learners, council members, parents, schools, and the community also gain. Every community evaluates its schools: the conclusions and judgments of an advisory council collecting and disseminating appropriate information can crystallize support for the schools and offset vague and unrealistic criticism.

Regardless of the size of the district, the authors suggest a central council of 9-12 people, supplemented by other committees of 5-9 members. A desirable objective is to involve 1 percent of the voters in committees that are school sponsored rather than independent, both temporary and continuing, and advisory not administrative. The selection process receives detailed treatment.

In developing council operations, two concerns are important: internal workings such as bylaws, responsibilities, and policies; and the process of how members can become informed and can learn about problems to be studied.

Advisory councils should avoid such questionable activities as independent reports to the public, noneducational concerns, pressure tactics, fund-raising, involvement in personnel matters, and the "hows" of learning, teaching, counseling, or administration.

8 **Illinois State Office of Education.** *A Guide for Planning, Organizing, and Utilizing Advisory Councils.* Springfield, Illinois: Division of Vocational and Technical Education, [1975]. 40 pages. ED 117 338.

"Occupational education programs must have direct lines of communication with the professions, business, industry, and public services if they are to be relevant and up to date. . . . The involvement of volunteer, knowledgeable citizens enhances important public acceptance for career education." But how is a career education advisory council developed?

Different levels of education and different sizes of school require or permit varying council systems, with varying degrees of specialization. Whatever the size or scope of the council system, though, there are common requirements for organization.

The council system should be officially sanctioned and provided with adequate guidelines by the school administration. Appointment of a selection committee will provide a valuable method of assuring a wide range of viewpoints on the council. The choice of council members is crucial. The selection committee should be aware that specialists may be more valuable than generalists in an advisory capacity for many occupational areas.

"The average advisory council should be large enough to be representative of the community and small enough to encourage active individual participation." Three-year terms on a rotating basis will provide adequate time for developing interest and knowledge, as well as assuring continuity of council activities. School representatives should be present, but without a vote.

Once organized, a council must be kept busy and must feel that its work is valuable and effective. Its actions can help teachers and administrators in numerous ways, improve student career selection, placement, and evaluation methods and results, provide career information, improve community-parent involvement, and develop better public relations for the program.

More a listing of suggestions and possibilities than a theoretical document, this collection of three bulletins provides information valuable in the formation of advisory councils in general, despite its announced focus on occupational education.

9 **Jenkins, Jeanne Kohl.** "Impression Management: Responses of Public School Principals to School-Community Advisory Councils." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 37 pages. ED 090 665.

Principals use varying manipulative strategies, both consciously and unconsciously, to influence the perceptions advisory councils develop about the principal and his or her authority, and the perceptions the principals develop about themselves and their involvement with the councils. These strategies make up "impression management"—how an individual manufactures impressions of himself for the benefit of other people with whom he interacts.

Using references to other studies and authorities, this study concentrates on methods used by principals in the Los Angeles public schools to deal with newly introduced advisory councils. Principals tend to see their role as that of legitimate decision-maker in the school, yet realize that council members may challenge that role, creating a potential conflict.

While more scholarly than most of the documents covered in this selection, Jenkins's paper can be particularly valuable in pointing out to administrators the possible reasons for and effects of their styles of leadership. The study concludes that principals whose communities and councils fail to be supportive or are even antagonistic appear more likely to use "impression management" techniques, a tendency that could further obscure the root problems hindering good relationships.

10 **Nerden, Joseph T.** "Advisory Committees in Vocational Education: A Powerful Incentive to Program Improvement," and **Whitten, Benjamin,** and others. "The Effective Functioning of Local Advisory Committees: Case Studies from Baltimore." *American Vocational Journal,* 52, 1 (January 1977), pp. 27-35. EJ 153 190 and 153 191.

Vocational educators at all levels view advisory committees as essential to their programs, but they do not always use such committees effectively, Nerden writes. To aid educators in making better use of these committees, Nerden discusses their functions and offers some sound recommendations for local administrators.

Vocational advisory committees can be particularly helpful in

4 updating programs so that they reflect current technology and employment opportunities. Employer, management, and labor representatives, experts in their fields, can offer very specific advice. Their participation, if it does not exceed advice, can be especially beneficial to vocational teachers, who are often inclined to dwell on the broad essentials.

Some basic rules will improve committee effectiveness, Nerden states. One of the committee members, rather than a school official, should chair the committee. The school should handle all the necessary legwork, such as assembling and mimeographing materials and arranging for secretarial help. Meetings should be spent on vital issues and problems at hand and not on reviewing old business and past accomplishments. Schools should also send out meeting agendas in advance. And though schools should clearly distinguish advisory from policy-making activities, they should never use a committee as a "rubber stamp."

Whitten's article complements Nerden's by presenting six case studies of advisory committees serving the Baltimore City Schools. Five studies discuss the work of trade committees linked to specific occupational programs, and one discusses the effort of a short-term committee in developing a new career education course. The studies detail the committees' significant contributions to the creation and upgrading of district programs.

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11 **Nolte, M. Chester.** "Citizen Power over Schools: How Much Is Too Much?" *American School Board Journal*, 163, 4 (April 1976), pp. 34-36. EJ 134 527.

While the involvement of citizens groups in education has brought many benefits, it can also bring serious problems, Nolte warns. Boards must be careful to maintain their authority and prerogatives through "meticulous organizing of citizen advisory committees."

Two problem areas of citizen involvement call for special attention. Boards should not officially seat citizens groups at the collective bargaining table, since such involvement "only confuses issues and builds a forum for divisiveness." Boards should also be wary of using citizens groups in textbook selection. Citizens can focus their attention on miniscule particulars rather than general goals and end up being a censorship group.

Nolte concludes with general guidelines for the management of advisory committees. Boards should select a committee that represents a true cross section of the district and appoint members themselves. Districts should define a specific task and purpose for a committee and disband it once it has fulfilled its charge. The advisory-only status of the committee should be made clear. Boards will also need to give the committee full cooperation, providing access to all needed information, and "keep an open mind until all the facts are in."

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12 **Oldham, Neild B.** *Citizens Advisory Committees: Public Participation Increases; Guides Change in American Education.* Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1973. 56 pages. ED 091 853.

The citizens advisory committee movement has taken off in unexpected directions. Originally intended as a group serving the entire district and its board of education as a consultative body, the citizens committee is now appearing frequently at the local school level as an operational unit.

This is the most surprising result of a survey conducted by *Education U.S.A.* into current national practices for handling advisory committees. This booklet analyzes survey responses to present a picture of the average committee, how it is organized, what it does, how it is changing, and what its strengths and weaknesses are as perceived by its members. Countless specific committees are cited as examples of both typical and unique solutions to common concerns and needs.

Coverage of the basic issues is thorough and clear. A substantial appendix provides samples of bylaws, policies, and forms.

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13 **Price, Nelson C.** *School Community Councils and Advisory Boards: A Notebook for Administrators. Why? Who? What? When? How? Operations Notebook 18.* Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1977. 49 pages. ED 145 583.

Administrators have made some progress toward involving citizens in the schools, but much remains to be done. All too often administrators' efforts founder from a lack of adequate attention to the details of forming an effective advisory committee; good intentions are no substitute for thorough preparation. This monograph is a step in that direction.

Price emphasizes that individuals are crucial to public involvement, and they must be met on their own terms. Administrators, he suggests, "tend to spend time looking for ways to motivate communities, rather than concentrating on the motivation of individuals." After guidelines have been established, prospective members should be approached in as personal a manner as possible; anonymity has no place in the development of a school community council.

Attention should be paid to those people who assist in the early stages of a project, and they should be encouraged to continue their efforts. They will not only be knowledgeable about the council's function, but they will appreciate the school's respect for their contributions. If committee members should become discouraged, they should be reminded of their successes; negativity can be contagious. Price realizes, however, that personal contact is not sufficient in itself. Roles and responsibilities need to be thoroughly described, and procedures outlined. Whether or not they are written down, the rules should be dutifully observed.

This notebook was designed to be used in conjunction with a workshop, but its general information, group exercises, and sample forms are resources in themselves.

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14 **Rodgers, Joseph Lee, Jr.** *Citizen Committees: A Guide to Their Use in Local Government.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing Company, 1977. 103 pages. ED 147 978.

Despite the proliferation of citizen committees in recent years, there have been few opportunities for formal training, and researchers have almost ignored the subject. Practical experience and intuition are valuable, of course, but no substitute for an understanding of the nature of citizen boards. Too often roles and responsibilities are left ill defined, and well-meaning efforts end up embroiled in controversy. Given this background, Rodgers' comprehensive study of citizen committees is a worthy contribution.

He divides committees into sixteen types and groups them into seven categories according to their basic functions. The goals, size, and composition of each type are outlined, and its purpose, organization, constituencies, and necessary resources are discussed. This useful schematic is filled out with portraits of successful committees in large and small cities throughout the nation. The attention to general characteristics and specific examples provides an enlightening look at the dynamics of citizen groups and indicates where their strengths lie.

While the main thrust of this study is an examination of the varieties of citizen committees, Rodgers also devotes some time to precepts that should guide administrators. Without adequate adherence to basic principles, he warns, a voluntary committee is liable to reinforce old prejudices and generate new resentments.

Despite the potential pitfalls, Rodgers finds every reason to be optimistic about the future of citizen committees. They have increased public awareness and have offered avenues of advancement for those interested in seeking higher office. Moreover, advisory committees have brought together people from different backgrounds and have made the political process more visible. Rodgers concludes that this kind of impact is not only valuable but essential to a healthy society.

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2 Alternative Schools

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15 **Barth, Roland S.** "Is There a Way Out?" *National Elementary Principal*, 53, 3 (March/April 1974), pp. 12-18. EJ 096 020.

Barth notes the gradual dissolution of uniformity in the schools, pointing out that no longer can the principal rely on his teachers, students, or their parents to condone a "uniform position for everyone" in the school. The erosion of uniformity has led to an accompanying erosion of the power of the principal to administer the school. Barth recommends that the principal utilize "diversity" and "ecumenism" to reduce dissonance and to encourage learning.

Such diversity can be accomplished by offering education alternatives on two levels—within the district as a whole, and within a particular school. Barth prefers the latter approach, noting that when alternative schools are set up within the district, students, teachers, and parents with similar attitudes and values tend to congregate in individual schools, defeating the goal of teaching people "to understand and live with one another."

Providing alternative education within a school necessitates giving individual teachers autonomy within their classrooms, allowing them to choose the means by which they accomplish the educational goals set out by the school as a whole. It is essential to place students in the classroom environment most suited to aiding their development, according to Barth.

Barth's article is of interest because he approaches the implementation of alternative education on a local level. As an elementary school principal, Barth indicates a thorough acquaintance with the problems of resolving conflicting expectations and still maintaining educational quality.

16 **Broad, Lyn.** *Alternative Schools: Why, What, Where and How Much. Education U.S.A. Special Report.* Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1977. 98 pages. ED 139 071.

Alternative schools are becoming increasingly respectable in educational circles, according to Broad. This book discusses the reasons for their growth and suggests possibilities for their continued development.

Three categories of schools emphasizing certain distinctives are explored. The first, schools that emphasize the instructional approach, includes "open" schools (which stress student self-determination and freedom) and continuation schools (which are designed for dropouts or potential dropouts, teenage parents, and those with similar situations). As in all three categories, Broad cites examples of representative schools.

The second category is schools that emphasize innovative curriculum, including magnet schools, schools-within-schools, and fundamental schools. These are especially geared toward overcoming the problems of bigness in "monolithic" schools.

Resources and facilities are a third category of emphasis. Many of the schools in this category are oriented toward experimental learning and community-based education.

A number of potential problems are mentioned by Broad. Many of them center around fears and uncertainties about experimenting

with children's education and around a lack of understanding of what alternative schools are really about. Broad believes the solution to many of these problems lies in a conscientious defining of what the basics in education are and an effort to ensure that they are taught.

Overall costs for alternative programs may initially be higher than for traditional education, but many believe that most can operate within the normal per-pupil-cost range once the programs are underway.

The final chapter is a discussion of how to implement alternative programs and how to keep them going. One of the key ideas is for the proposed alternative to be explained in writing before it begins so everyone involved knows specifically what the philosophy and goals are. The proposed means and criteria for evaluation should also be in writing before the program starts.

Two other important ideas are to find out as much about other schools as possible before starting and to give potential teachers a choice regarding their involvement.

"Clearly the best survival strategy," Broad states, "is a genuinely distinct progam, distinguished by its excellence as well as by its difference." Such a program would also be characterized by its ability to change as needs change.

17 **Deal, Terrence E.** *An Organizational Explanation of the Failure of Alternative Schools. Research and Development Memorandum No. 133.* Stanford, California: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1975. 27 pages. ED 101 441.

Deal maintains that the failure of some alternative schools is attributable to intraorganizational difficulties—that "they were not able to cope with the organizational problems produced by new authority patterns and by highly complex educational processes." Deal's thesis departs from the more common economic, political, and anthropological explanations of alternative school failure. He speculates that problems arising from these three factors may follow from the basic organizational weakness of the schools, instead of serving as sources for that weakness.

Deal's organizational analysis uncovered "a fairly predictable series of events or stages" leading to one of three "outcomes": dissolution of the school, assumption of the characteristics of traditional schools, or development of a "stabilized alternative to conventional schooling." His two case studies (of a community school and an urban school) indicate three main evolutionary phases through which alternative schools pass.

First, "the euphoric stage" is marked by excitement, enthusiasm, and cooperation among students, staff, and parents. Second, the psychic upheaval stage occurs, characterized by depression and crises. After upheaval, dissatisfaction sets in. Everyone involved comes to believe that the alternative school "is no better than anything else." The dissatisfaction is resolved in one of the three outcomes listed above.

This anatomy of organizational problems is well written and an intelligent, constructive approach to a topic that alternative educational proponents sometimes don't like to confront—the failure of alternative schools.

18 **DeTurk, Philip,** and **Mackin, Robert.** *Alternative School Development: A Guide for Practitioners.* Durham, New Hampshire: New England Program in Teacher Education, 1974. 11 pages. ED 110 458.

According to these two "initiators and former directors of public alternative schools," the development of an alternative school "should not be an emotional anti-school 'happening'." Instead, it must be a well-planned, structured undertaking. Structure not only provides "stability," but it also encourages the development of an effective evaluation and communications system.

DeTurk and Mackin outline five "action stages of alternative school development": exploration (initial investigation of the appropriateness of an alternative school); commitment (from the school board, including funding); definition of the characteristics, objectives, and resources of the school; school construction (putting plans into operation); and refinement ("continued self-reflection").

These developmental stages are closely related to the concerns and issues that arise in operating an alternative school. Goals and objectives must be stated specifically to serve as a basis for ongoing evaluation by decision-makers. "Internal concerns" are those relating to "curriculum, people, and structure." "External concerns" are those involving the school's relationship with the public.

These authors point out that many times alternative schools lose necessary support "by building a shell of fuzzy rhetoric, defensive public action, and belligerent internal interaction." Careful structuring helps to prevent these difficulties.

19 **Doob, Heather Sidor.** *Evaluation of Alternative Schools. ERS Research Brief.* Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, Inc., 1977. 53 pages. ED 143 095.

Research information regarding the evaluation of alternative schools has been lacking, due largely to the youth of the movement. But the pool of information is steadily growing, as this report from ERS indicates.

Doob summarizes evaluations made on twenty-seven alternative schools, ranging from one fundamental school (Academics Plus in Cupertino, California) to a school dealing exclusively with students who have dropped out or been suspended from regular schools (People's Number One School in Seattle).

Brief reports of the evaluations made on each school generally include results of tests measuring achievement and improvement academically and socially; surveys measuring the attitudes of students, parents, and teachers toward the schools; followup reports on students after they finish school; and overall conclusions made by the evaluators.

Although the evaluations produced widely divergent results, a number of common themes predominated. Most of the schools were highly successful in developing very positive attitudes on the

8 part of students and parents toward the schools. Most of the schools experienced difficulty balancing the students' personal responsibility and freedom. And academic achievement generally increased slightly or remained stable.

The paper also includes a 140 entry bibliography.

20

Dunn, Rita, and **Dunn, Kenneth.** "Learning Style as a Criterion for Placement in Alternative Programs." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 56, 4 (December 1974), pp. 275-78. EJ 107 321.

Assignment of students to alternative education programs should not be done on "a wholesale, random, voluntary, or parent-determined basis," according to these authors. Unless the learning situation fits the individual student's learning style, little will be accomplished by switching school environments.

The Dunns outline four "sets of stimuli" that affect the individual's style of learning. Different students react differently to these sets of stimuli. First, environmental factors such as lighting, temperature, noise, and building design elicit different responses. Second, the emotional makeup of the child determines which learning situation will be optimal. Third, sociological factors, such as how the student reacts to his peers and to authority figures, affect learning style. And finally, the student's particular physical makeup affects how he learns. For example, some students are more receptive to visual stimuli, whereas others respond better to aural or tactile stimuli.

The authors outline the necessary learning style characteristics for several kinds of instructional programs (the open classroom, the individualized classroom, and the traditional classroom).

Although their prose is somewhat jargon-ridden, their basic argument is well made. Freedom of choice is important, but cannot be allowed to become the decisive factor in selecting an education alternative.

21

Estes, Nolan, and **Waldrip, Donald R.,** editors. *Magnet Schools: Legal and Practical Implications. Magnet School Conference Series Number 1. Annual International Conference on Magnet Schools (1st, Dallas, Texas, March 9-12, 1977).* Piscataway, New Jersey: New Century Education Corporation, 1978. 149 pages. ED 150 728.

"Whether you find yourself in a large, medium-sized, or small district; whether your district is wealthy or poor; whether you serve a predominantly liberal or conservative constituency—you will improve the quality of education, respond to identifiable interest groups, better serve students of varying needs, and reduce racial isolation by organizing a system of options for students and parents."

This statement by Waldrip is typical of the enthusiasm about alternative schools expressed in this collection of addresses given at the First Annual International Conference on Magnet Schools. The conference, held in Dallas during March 1977, brought together a variety of perspectives on the alternative school movement.

Nine essays are included in this collection, virtually all of which extol alternatives for various reasons—especially their positive effect on student enthusiasm about school and on voluntary racial integration. Two successful implementations of magnet schools, in Minneapolis and in Dallas, are chronicled.

In an especially interesting essay, Donald Waldrip and Edgar Lotspeich discuss student recruitment. The purpose of such efforts is to get "certain students to explore the possibilities of attending alternatives." These efforts should be conducted primarily by educators, not professional public relations firms. The essay also includes ideas regarding site selection, a factor very significant to the ultimate success of the program.

22

Jones, Philip G. "How to Pick the Right Kind (or Kinds) of Alternative School for Your Community." *The American School Board Journal,* 163, 1 (January 1976), pp. 31-34. EJ 130 922.

"Happy parents and students are those who have been provided choices—lots of choices," according to Jones. Just as an "ostensibly" wide variety of automobile styles and accessories makes consumers happy, so does a wide variety of educational alternatives make the public happy, he argues. Therefore, school boards should not hesitate to respond positively to the public's demand for more than one kind of schooling. A school board should first commit itself to providing good basic education in all schools, "regardless of their environmental and methodological differences." Then it can evolve a policy allowing for educational alternatives.

Jones lists six steps that school boards should take to ensure a coordinated, effective alternative education program. First, administrators and board members should learn about alternative school programs in other districts. Jones provides names and

addresses of school personnel in districts around the country who have been involved in setting up and running alternative schools.

The board should adopt "a comprehensive written policy on alternatives or options in public education." This policy statement should include the district's basic educational goals for all schools, as well as its position on parent and student involvement in decision-making and its enrollment policy. The board should survey both parents and community members, as well as school staff, to determine what kinds of alternatives these groups prefer. A cost estimate is essential, though Jones points out that setting up alternative programs is frequently not expensive. The district must define admission procedures for alternative schools. And finally, it must determine whether these schools are to be located within existing schools or separate from them.

Some readers might find Jones's comparison between schools and cars somewhat glib. He rather cynically implies that the *illusion* of variety is the important thing and that, in actuality, neither cars nor alternative schools offer much real choice.

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23 **Lieberman, Ann,** and **Griffin, Gary.** "The Alternative School: A Strategy for Change?" Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York, April 1977. 21 pages. ED 143 136.

Lieberman and Griffin cite numerous instances of how alternative schools are indeed alternatives. However, they also voice a number of serious concerns about some apparent unanticipated consequences from the creation of alternative schools.

Worthwhile new options alternative schools provide include increased voluntarism in all aspects of the school, greater incidence of egalitarianism (particularly related to decision-making), blurring of power/authority relations between students and teachers, and small school and class size. Nonetheless, alternative schools tend to move back toward conventional structures as the people in the schools continue to expend the tremendous amount of energy needed to accomplish their goals.

That alternative schools get closer to basic problems of schooling means that they must then directly struggle with those problems. That is one unanticipated consequence, since conventional schools can avoid that struggle by covering up the problems.

The authors also mention a kind of "de facto segregation" that tends to happen as a result of the combination of voluntarism and the attraction alternative schools have for people with certain ideologies.

Another consequence is a tendency for the "alternative school" label to be used for what are in reality conventional programs, since often the connotation of "alternative" is "good."

In evaluating alternatives as strategies for change, Lieberman and Griffin conclude "yes . . . no." Yes in that they truly are in many ways alternatives to conventional schools. But no in that they have not yet succeeded in having influence beyond the innovative groups themselves.

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24 **LoCicero, Jo.** "Another Choice, Another Chance: A Survey of Alternative Public High School Programs in New York City." New York: Community Service Society of New York, 1976. 60 pages. ED 146 239.

From her survey, LoCicero compiled an impressive list of benefits alternative schools contribute to New York City's school system. They provide greater freedom from bureaucratic restrictions than do traditional schools. They place a greater emphasis on the individual development of students. And they are characterized by a relatively higher degree of student satisfaction, probably because of closer student-teacher relationships and a stronger sense of belonging.

The survey focused primarily on three types of alternative programs: the minischool complex, made up of several minischools, each a separate entity, located in a single facility; the experimental alternative high school, an autonomous self-contained entity; and the minischool, which belongs to a parent school but is designed to meet the special needs of selected students.

LoCicero makes several recommendations that, though addressed specifically to New York City's board of education, have application to other districts as well. One is to allow students to choose where and what they want to study. Another is to abolish residence requirements and feeder patterns and to give students guidance so they can make informed choices. A third is to establish alternative programs within traditional schools with the expressed intention of facilitating greater rapport between students and teachers.

The report also includes a copy of the questionnaire used to gain information from alternative programs.

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25 **Mazzarella, Jo Ann.** *Alternative Schools. School Management Digest, Number 13. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 40.* Burlingame, California; and Eugene: Association of California School Administrators; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1978. 42 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

"For those who believe that different students learn and different teachers teach in different ways, alternative schools look like a good way to attempt to match student and teacher with appropriate educational technique."

Such is Mazzarella's conclusion in this overview of the alternative school "explosion" in American public education. A noteworthy feature of her book is its interweaving of knowledge from the literature with anecdotal insights of practitioners who have had experience with alternative schools.

Alternative schools cover a wide range of educational philosophy—from the open (or free) schools to the basic (or fundamental) schools. But one characteristic unifies them all. They allow parents, students, and teachers to choose the kinds of educational programs they will be involved in.

Three kinds of alternative schools that "build their programs around specialized curricula to attract students with special

10 interests" include magnet schools, schools without walls, and magnet schools used for desegregation. Magnet schools' potential for aiding racial integration is limited by the small percentage of a district's students that would utilize magnet schools.

Alternative schools are significant, also, for the potential innovations they are bringing in school governance. These innovations include ideas like a New York City school-within-a-school that may be run by a teacher coordinator who also teaches and is subordinate to the parent-school principal.

The incorporation of parents, students, and teachers in the process of planning and making decisions about programs is another innovation. One example is Evergreen Alternative School in Eugene, Oregon, where "much decision-making is done by a ten-member steering committee made up of parents, one teacher, and one auxiliary staff member. Recommendations concerning hiring come from a steering committee member, one auxiliary staff member, and two students."

A number of school districts have comprehensive programs offering a wide range of alternatives. From the experiences of five such districts Mazzarella concludes that "at least two factors seem to emerge" as explanations for the success or failure of any program. Successful ones "usually rest on a strong commitment by administrators and on insistence that alternative programs must cost no more than regular programs."

The book concludes with a list of suggestions made by various alternative school participants for making alternative programs work. A six-page bibliography is included.

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26 **North Central Association of Colleges and Schools.** *Policies and Standards for the Approval of Optional Schools and Special Function Schools,* 1974-75. Chicago: 1974. 28 pages. ED 101 476.

The emergence of alternative schools ("optional" or "special function schools") has led to the need for some kind of quality control to ascertain whether these schools provide the educational services they were intended to provide. This quality control can be achieved by accreditation, according to this booklet compiled by the North Central Association. The NCA has served as the accrediting agency for conventional schools in its region for many years. In order to achieve the goal of upgrading education, the NCA's "standards have been set high." The policies and standards for alternative schools are intended to be equally high, though the NCA recognizes that these schools frequently differ in purpose and composition.

The accreditation standards for alternative schools described in this booklet are "qualitative in nature." A "framework of common preconditions for quality education" provides the basis for standards and procedures particular to each alternative school's purposes and goals. For example, the NCA requires that the organizational structure of an optional school facilitate the achievement of the school's stated purposes. In other words, it must be administered effectively. But the NCA does not specify what form those organizational structures need take, as long as "the administration of the school has the necessary authority and autonomy."

Once the NCA has accepted an alternative school's set of standards, it examines the school every three years to determine whether it is still maintaining high quality education. If the school falls down, it loses its accreditation.

The NCA's approach to accreditation for alternative schools helps to answer the question of how to ensure high quality education in schools that differ greatly from each other, as well as from conventional schools.

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27 **Rich, Leslie.** "A Process for Alternative Education." *American Education,* 13, 2 (March 1977), pp. 23-26. EJ 163 356.

To make "provision for those who need something else" in education is the primary purpose of alternative education in New Haven, Connecticut.

In this article Rich describes how that has been done and the role played by the Community Planning Council on Educational Alternatives (CPCEA).

CPCEA is not really part of the alternatives themselves. It exists to "promote and disseminate the alternatives that exist, and to do what it can to develop others." It was formed in large part due to the success of New Haven's most well-known alternative school, the High School of the Community (HSC). With the success of HSC, many people wanted to broaden the context of alternative programs.

When CPCEA first started, it undertook two projects. First, it made a systematic study of what other communities were doing in nontraditional education. Then it conducted a thorough survey of New Haven that indicated widespread openness to alternative programs among city residents.

CPCEA's twenty-member executive committee meets monthly to "discuss, examine, learn, and argue over" how to best meet the educational needs of those who want something other than traditional education.

Some of the activities include sponsoring workshops, acting as a clearinghouse for information, and awarding minigrants to groups to plan new alternatives.

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28 **Smith, Vernon; Barr, Robert;** and **Burke, Daniel.** *Alternatives in Education: Freedom to Choose. Perspectives in American Education.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976. 180 pages. ED 128 283.

"We are confident that the means to improve the schools are at hand." On that note, Smith, Barr, and Burke begin a comprehensive and quite positive discussion of alternative schools.

They believe alternatives must be understood in the context of many of the serious problems in American society and of the failure of the public schools to help overcome the problems. In fact, they see public schools as part of the root of problems such as racism, social stratification, and the lack of a truly participatory democracy in the United States.

Among the evidence Smith and his colleagues cite to show that schools are deficient, they point to a 25-40 percent dropout rate that is steadily increasing. As many as ten million school-age youth are not enrolled in school. One out of thirteen secondary school students has been suspended, and 33 percent of middle-class white students and 45 percent of poor black students fail to maintain even a "C" average.

Given this evidence and the central role formal education has in the lives of youth, Smith, Barr, and Burke assert that alternatives are an essential part of an educational system that has the responsibility to equip people to deal with the problems of our age. They cite three central characteristics of alternative schools: choice for those involved, difference from traditional schools, and an enrollment representative of the community.

In a discussion of possible ways alternatives can improve the schools and thereby improve human welfare, the authors give special attention to successful programs in Grand Rapids, Michigan. Among other things, the Grand Rapids programs are characterized by careful planning, central administration, and excellent use of existing facilities—both within the school district and in the community-at-large.

Numerous other examples are also mentioned in the text and in the five-page bibliography. One outstanding example is Maurice Gibbon's idea of a "walkabout" experience for students where they are challenged to be responsible, in real situations, for their own welfare and the welfare of others.

Three areas receive special emphasis in the last part of the book. One is utilization of the community for a more well-integrated and practical education. Another is the need to emphasize cultural diversity and dispel the "melting pot" myth that has effectively excluded blacks, Mexican-Americans, and native Americans. The third is the central priority of choice.

29 **Vincenzi, Harry,** and **Fishman, Roger J.** "Impact of Alternative Programs on an Urban School District." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Toronto, March 1978. 19 pages. ED 152 938.

The benefits of alternative schools are not easily measured, according to the authors of this study of alternative programs in Philadelphia. Nonetheless, those benefits exist.

It is not possible to accurately measure rates of achievement. But even the fact that students in alternative schools maintained rates of achievement comparable to students in their former home schools is significant because of other, less-tangible benefits.

Providing students educational and vocational options not offered in the traditional schools is one benefit. Another is a greater exposure to various career options by observation and "hands on experiences."

Students with behavior problems have the benefit of a chance to start again in a smaller school. The smaller school can meet attention needs and allow students who lag academically to work with materials at their own level rather than being frustrated by attempting to keep up with their peers.

Vincenzi and Fishman noted several weaknesses in the alternative programs they observed. The disruptive/truant programs sometimes carry a stigma that repels students who might be helped by them. Also a tendency exists to make them a "dumping ground" for teachers and counselors who want to get rid of troublesome students.

The career preparation programs were limited by the number of possibilities in the community for "real-life" exposure and training.

The third category of programs, individualized study, were often either standardized and therefore not flexible enough or else extremely demanding of teachers.

30 **Vollbrecht, Michele Touzeau,** compiler. "Evaluation of Alternative Schools: An Annotated ERIC Bibliography." Princeton, New Jersey: ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation, 1977. 39 pages. ED 142 583.

Operating with the definition of alternative schools as "schools both within and outside the public school system that offer alternatives to traditional educational concepts and practices," this annotated bibliography includes both evaluations of alternative schools and materials that discuss and prescribe how they can be evaluated.

The bibliography includes sixty-two entries that cover both elementary and secondary schools. A subject index is included.

31 **Whipple, W. Scott.** "Changing Attitudes through Behavior Modification." Paper presented at the National Association of Secondary School Principals annual meeting, New Orleans, January 1977. 10 pages. ED 146 500.

3

12 Whipple's presupposition is that positive attitude changes within students will inevitably result in positive changes in their behavior. Speaking from his experience as principal of Granite Alternative School in Salt Lake City, to which 100 percent of the students are referred because of poor behavior, he outlines a means of fostering positive attitude changes in students.

It is essential that the attitudes of the teachers and administrators be ones of unconditional acceptance and care for the students, Whipple believes. He goes so far as to say that faculty members should consider only the strengths of students, forgetting their weaknesses. Acceptance and care are big steps toward changing student behavior.

The idea of modelling right behavior is also a central one to Whipple. This applies very strongly to faculty members, but Granite has also developed a student modelling program in which students are trained to help other students who have a poor self-image and are new to the school.

It's important, Whipple states, to create an environment where success is attainable by all students. Successful experiences have a large effect on changing a student's attitude and behavior. One example of how this can be done is the use of individualized grading programs so that students don't compete with others but are graded on their own ability and achievement.

Faculty members can show their appreciation of students by doing such things as giving the whole student body a free lunch or breakfast after a campus cleanup or buying individual students a pop after they've been of help.

If students can feel appreciated, accepted, and significant, Whipple constantly reiterates, then their attitudes will change and, as a result, their behavior will also.

EA 011 103

Alternatives to Suspension

ED163623

32 **The American Friends Service Committee.** "Alternatives to Suspension: Alternative Programs." Columbia, South Carolina: South Carolina Community Relations Program. *Your Schools*, 6, 6 (May 1975), pp. 5-11. ED 135 114.

Part of a larger document on reducing the number of suspensions, this section consists of several articles describing alternative programs outside the regular school. Two articles deal with a program in Houston (Texas) sponsored jointly by the schools and the county's juvenile probation department. The centers established under the program use both educational and public service personnel to provide students with group and individual counseling in addition to their regular class assignments. The authors note that 75 percent of these students, some of whom are self-referred, have major learning disabilities that simply do not get adequate handling in the regular school situation.

The Houston program is proving highly successful. Before the program, the school districts' secondary schools suspended 396 students in 1972-73. In the first year of the program less than 20 were suspended, while 539 were referred to the centers. The number of repeaters was as low as 15 percent in another district. In addition to keeping children in school and out of trouble with the police and juvenile authorities, the centers also allow public service workers earlier contact with children facing problems. Difficulties can thus be overcome before they get out of hand.

This section also discusses a program requiring joint counseling with parents and the referring educators that has cut suspensions to one-half and expulsions to one-sixth their former rates; an isolation booth program; and an ungraded walk-in school and another alternative school, both serving a South Carolina district.

33 **The American Friends Service Committee.** "Alternatives to Suspension: Techniques, Methods, and Strategies." Columbia, South Carolina: South Carolina Community Relations Program. *Your Schools*, 6, 6 (May 1975), pp. 11-15. ED 135 114.

Ideally, discipline problems should be handled before they require the use of suspensions or special programs that remove the student from the regular school setting. One good tool for modifying behavior is the behavioral contract. Recognizing the kinds of rewards each student needs and the capacities of each student for achieving set goals enables the teacher to help the student develop a contract he or she can meet. Reasonable expectations, challenges, and successes build the self-esteem necessary for a student to feel secure. In addition, contracts require little time for monitoring and place responsibility on the student. In-class misbehavior, truancy, and academic failure can all be improved through the use of suitably designed contracts.

Assigning teachers and administrators as advocates or personal counselors for students, especially when the students can choose the educator they would feel most comfortable with, is another method for attacking discipline problems early. As long as each teacher's "case load" is small, a good personal relationship can be established with each student.

Using other students is yet another technique, helping both students involved. The problem student feels less threatened, and the student who is helping feels needed and useful. Some training is needed, of course, to make sure the student "counselor" does not simply further discourage his peer, a development that could also discourage the "counselor" himself.

34 **Bettker, Dean F.** "Suspensions: Get Rid of 'Em!" *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 5, 1 (October 1975), pp. 26-27. EJ 132 166.

California state laws limiting suspensions to five days for a single offense and twenty days total out of the year are forcing administrators to find alternatives. At Buena Vista's La Palma Junior High School, a work program handles discipline cases that do not involve threats to the welfare of other students, personnel, or the school. After-school jobs are assigned students, including "gardening, landscaping, custodial chores, clerical jobs, and assisting teachers," with an attempt made to relate the assignment to the offense. For example, aggressive behavior gets the student highly physical tasks, permitting a positive, creative outlet for high energy.

In the first year the number of suspensions was reduced by 90 percent. Over 400 students participated, providing the school with 2,097 hours of service. While the program required hiring teachers at $8.75 per hour as monitors, the cost was more than made up for in state aid saved by keeping students in school. In fact, the program generated a net income of $3,344.49.

In addition, only 19 percent of the students participating repeated later, with a vast majority viewing their assignments as consequences of their own actions, rather than as administrative tyranny.

35 **Dinkmeyer, Don,** and **Dinkmeyer, Don, Jr.** "Logical Consequences: A Key to the Reduction of Disciplinary Problems." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 57, 10 (June 1976), pp. 664-66. EJ 139 345.

If schools are to develop responsible, resourceful adults who are able to relate to others, they must teach the necessary skills as part of the educational process. "The student must be helped to see relationships between actions and their consequences." The use of punishment tends to have the opposite effect, teaching students to become angry and vengeful and to resist authority.

Misbehavior can be limited if proper methods are used, including avoiding reinforcing or provoking misbehavior, developing mutual respect through kindness and firmness rather than through hostility and threats, looking for assets in each student that can be encouraged, and being flexible in attitudes taken, rather than simply expecting the worst and, as a result, getting it.

When a student misbehaves, the educator should help the student think through what he or she hopes to gain through the misbehavior. The educator can then present the student with alternative solutions to the problem and require commitment to a

positive course of action. When the alternatives offered are logical results of the misbehavior, the student must face the responsibility for his own actions.

36 **Fagen, Stanley A.**, and **Long, Nicholas J.** "Before It Happens: Prevent Discipline Problems by Teaching Self-Control." *Instructor*, 85, 5 (January 1976), pp. 42-47, 95-96. EJ 138 880.

Programs to prevent learning and behavior problems before they develop can save time and effort for teachers and schools, as well as giving children a much better chance at success in life. Fagen and Long identify eight "skill-clusters" valuable in teaching self-control at the elementary level: selecting, storing, and sequencing and ordering of information; anticipating the consequences of acts; appreciating feelings; managing frustrations; learning restraint; and ability to relax. Children having these skills are confident of themselves and feel secure among their peers, while those deficient are likely to become "disruptive, irresponsible, and insensitive to the needs of others." Developing these skills should be a central part of any educational program.

The authors provide techniques for assessing individual children's needs and describe activities by which those needs can be met on a more than merely theoretical level. The methods described encourage objective, positive responses to children experiencing problems.

37 **Fiske, Edward B.** "Schools Developing Alternatives to Student Suspensions." *New York Times*, 18 May 1977, B5. EJ 158 096.

"Not long ago," writes Fiske, "two boys got into a fight in the halls of Intermediate School 44 on West 77th Street in Manhattan. They could have been suspended; instead they were taken to the office of Steven Kaminsky, a teacher grade leader, and signed a 'behavior contract'." With student discipline becoming an increasingly difficult problem in schools today, punitive measures are undergoing a reassessment. Suspension has been a long-standing means of dealing with disruptive students, but educators are becoming increasingly aware that it has some important drawbacks.

Not the least of these is financial: in these days of economic straits, schools simply cannot afford to lose state funds when pupils are absent for extended lengths of time. Also, the courts' recent recognition of the rights of due process for students can turn suspension into an administrative nightmare. Finally suspension has not done what it was intended to do—prevent misbehavior.

As a consequence, schools are experimenting with various other modes of discipline. At Manhattan's Intermediate School 44, students agree to a behavioral contract that pledges them to acceptable behavior in the future. Other programs dealing with unruly students include the Buffalo schools' "time-out" rooms, where students may study under close supervision, and San Diego's special classes for fractious students.

The approaches are varied, but there is a common recognition that traditional means of discipline may not be the most pragmatic or effective way to enforce the rules.

38 **Foster, Gordon.** *Discipline Practices in the Hillsborough County Public Schools.* Coral Gables, Florida: Florida School Desegregation Consulting Center, University of Miami, 1977. 82 pages. ED 145 575.

The Hillsborough County Schools have made dramatic strides toward eliminating racial discrimination, but the district has nevertheless been criticized for its discipline practices. Citizens advisory board reports and Department of Health, Education, and Welfare investigators have found the Tampa schools wanting.

Despite the overall harmony prevailing in the Tampa schools, there are ample reasons for charges of discriminatory discipline practices: in 1975-76, the suspension rate for black students was two and one-half times their representation in the student population and there has been an "inordinate number" of black suspensions for the "subjective offenses" where the administrator's discretion is involved. Evidence indicates that white teachers and administrators often view all minorities as resentful "troublemakers."

The authors tentatively conclude that "principals, and their staffs through their leadership, expect that black students will behave in certain unacceptable ways, and that these expectations may indeed lead to fulfillment: in other words, the self-fulfilling prophecy syndrome may be playing an important role."

The ultimate solution to these problems is still a distant prospect; in the meantime, alternatives to traditional punishment are being explored. Hillsborough's inschool suspension program proved successful until it was all but eliminated by budget cuts. Not only could students continue their studies, but minor and serious offenses were differentiated. Another alternative to suspension is the work detail, a penalty that usually involves cleaning lunchrooms or shops on the student's own time. One principal extended the work detail to include the student's home—a tack that parents appreciated. A unique form of punishment adopted by one school required the offender to telephone his or her parents and describe the infraction. After the pupil had explained the situation, the principal would talk to the parent, and they would decide on an appropriate response.

These alternatives have met with varying success, but the authors are convinced they should be pursued. Suspensions should be held to a minimum. Moreover, teachers and administrators should be held accountable for their disciplinary measures, and efforts should be made to recruit more minority counselors and administrators.

39 **McClung, Merle.** "Alternatives to Disciplinary Exclusion from School." *Inequality in Education*, 20 (July 1975), pp. 58-73. EJ 122 551.

"Alternatives which are developed without sensitivity to a student's individual needs may do more harm than the exclusionary practices they replace." For McClung these potentially harmful substitutes include isolation booths, behavior modifying drugs, and

corporal punishment, all of which tend to treat symptoms while ignoring their causes.

McClung argues that to achieve a positive and effective response to behavior problems, "development of the least restrictive alternative should be a guiding principle." When selecting a technique for dealing with an individual situation, an educator must try to interfere as little as possible in the normal life of the student. The options range on a continuum from reasoning patiently with students and using accessible cooling-off rooms to providing professional attention without removing the child from the classroom, or even seeking educational opportunities outside the regular school.

Alternative programs themselves must be judged in terms of whether they reduce the need for suspensions and promote academic progress and self-discipline in students. Behavior modification programs pose legal and moral questions as well and must be examined closely to make sure that their positive results stem from the students' real appreciation of the values of discipline.

In addition to considering problems caused by students, educators should also examine school policies and the attitudes of individual teachers to make sure the school situation itself is not the cause of more problems than it is solving. Expectations may be so high that they bear no relation to the actual range of normal childhood behavior.

The article cites numerous studies and also reports the recommendation of the NEA's Task Force on Corporal Punishment for alternative disciplinary techniques.

40

Meares, Henry Oneil, and **Kittle, Helen Adele.** "More Advantages In-House Suspension." *NASSP Bulletin,* 60, 397 (February 1976), pp. 60-63. EJ 144 088.

The inschool suspension program at the Fisher Campus of Urbana Junior High School remedies several weaknesses found in out-of-school suspensions. While in a special suspension room, students do not miss their usual assignments and continue to have professional supervision. They do not become a problem for the outside community. They can be suspended only for those classes in which they have difficulties, while continuing normally in others. Suspensions do not become a form of vacation.

Students are placed in contact with teachers specially prepared to be aware of their difficulties and perhaps better able to establish personal relationships, and they remain accessible to the counseling staff as well. Parents who are unwilling or unable to become involved with the schools no longer need play a major role in the process. Suspensions can be terminated when they have achieved their purpose, rather than at the end of an arbitrary period. Student records are not marred by official recognition of misconduct. Students do not suffer the humiliation of being excluded from school. And, of course, state ADA funds continue to come into the school.

The expenses involved in the Urbana program are made up in state aid saved and in reduced law-enforcement and other costs in the outside community.

41

Mizell, M. Hayes. *Designing a Positive In-School Suspension Program.* Jackson, Mississippi: Southeastern Public Education Program, American Friends Service Committee, 1977. 12 pages. ED 144 251.

Inschool suspension programs have become an increasingly common means of dealing with student misconduct, but all too often they result in little more than detention. Their philosophical basis may be sound, but implementation leaves much to be desired. Problems may be merely ignored rather than solved.

The difficulty, Mizell suggests, is that educators may be more concerned with financial pressures and public images than with the fates of their students. An effective discipline program should deal not just with symptoms, but work to identify the roots of the behavioral problems. This is a potentially unpopular chore since teachers, parents, administrators, and peers may be as responsible as the supposed miscreant.

Once a school administration commits itself to helping the students rather than itself, discipline practices are bound to change. Fairness will require that each case receives individual consideration. Strict time limits must govern the duration of the suspensions. Some kind of followup care will be necessary to determine how the disruptive students are doing in their classes, and counseling should be available on an extended basis. Academic difficulties must also be dealt with since they frequently underlie students' negative attitudes toward the classroom. Special classes must be arranged, and teachers should be chosen according to their abilities and interest in dealing with pupils who have problems.

These are not easy or inexpensive remedies, but Mizell insists that nothing less will do. He is confident that change is possible, that "bad kids" can be turned into "good kids" if education, not management, is the first priority.

42 **Neill, Shirley Boes.** *Suspensions and Expulsions: Current Trends in School Policies and Programs.* Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1976. 65 pages. ED 127 720.

In addition to providing a full explanation of the legal use of suspensions and expulsions, this report from NSPRA is perhaps the best available description of a variety of alternative disciplinary programs. The capsule descriptions are often accompanied by addresses to write for more information.

One school district assumes that the school shares adjustment problems with the students; it provides full-time alternative schools, transfers to other conventional schools, and part-time education as some ways of easing mutual difficulties. Los Angeles places ten students in each of several special centers that continue to provide personalized support even after the student reenters the regular program. The establishment of "family groups" of eight to ten students who meet for one class period each day is a central element in a Minnesota program that seeks to nurture self-confidence. Low teacher-student ratios and increased personal attention seem to be the major factors in the success of these alternatives.

After-school detention is often used as a warning to those guilty of minor offenses. One district requires students to work on the school grounds, another provides a detention room for study and counseling after hours, and in still a third students discuss their behavior and its causes in group sessions.

Other inschool methods have proved effective as well. The accumulation of demerits by students in a Texas district leads first to the school's contacting the parents, and later to inschool and finally out-of-school suspension. Students remain aware of their exact status at all times. In other districts work programs after school or on Saturdays can replace or add to suspensions. Conference telephone calls allow parents, students, and educators to respond immediately to problems.

One district requires teachers, everytime they do refer students, to note on a checklist the steps they have taken to prevent having to refer them for disciplinary action. By alerting the teachers to the possible alternatives, the checklist itself helps guard against unnecessary referrals. And in New Jersey, a forcefully expanded athletic and activity program has eliminated racial incidents, built up student morale, and cut back discipline problems greatly.

43 **O'Brien, Diane M.** "In-School Suspension: Is It the New Way to Punish Productively?" *American School Board Journal*, 163, 3 (March 1976), pp. 35-37. EJ 132 549.

Rather than giving students a vacation as a reward for misbehavior, several suburban Minneapolis schools place major offenders in a special suspension room for two to five of their school days. There the students are required to do extra schoolwork, in addition to the work assigned in their regular classes, and are excluded from extracurricular activities, pep rallies, and similar functions. Strict rules forbid talking and even define the colors of ink students are to use for different pieces of work. Students write two 500-word essays analyzing themselves and the place they expect to make for themselves in the world, providing a start for later counseling.

The program is proving successful in the blue-collar communities where it is being tried, but may be too strict for children raised in less conservative areas, and too antagonizing to innercity students who desperately need the creative outlet offered by extracurricular activities. In any case, it seems more valuable than the use of at-home suspensions, which merely encourage the behavior they are meant to stop.

44 **Pennsylvania State Department of Education.** *Alternative Disciplinary Programs and Practices in Pennsylvania Schools: An Addendum to the Guidelines for School Discipline.* Harrisburg: Bureau of Instructional Support Services, 1977. 70 pages. ED 144 246.

Frank Manchester, Pennsylvania commissioner of basic education, stated the issue clearly: "For too many years education has used detention, suspension and expulsion as its only solution for disciplinary problems. Quality education for all youth demands the development of sound and practicable options and disciplinary alternatives." In response to this challenge, the editors of *Guidelines for School Discipline* circulated a questionnaire and summarized the results in this report on alternative disciplinary practices in Pennsylvania.

The most prevalent response to student misbehavior holds the offender to account and attempts to correct the problem with a program that is separate from the regular curriculum. In this mode, punishment, home visits, counseling, special class offerings, and behavior modification techniques are used to encourage acceptable behavior.

Alternative disciplinary programs, on the other hand, attack the problem from many directions. In Pennsylvania, these approaches run the gamut from short-term classes to comprehensive schools where students may go for years. The academic options may include only supervised study, or a full range of subjects and supportive services may be available.

The particulars of the Pennsylvania programs are embodied in descriptions of alternative disciplinary plans in twenty school districts. Basic information on the type, size, and funding of each project is included with a short discussion of procedures, curriculum, and goals. The variety in the scope and design of the programs ensures that any administrator contemplating alternatives to suspension will find a model to draw on.

45 **South Carolina State Department of Education.** *Alternatives to School Disciplinary and Suspension Problems.* Columbia: Division of Instruction, 1976. 32 pages. ED 140 509.

Public cries for stricter discipline in the schools have resulted in an increasing reliance on suspension and expulsion of unruly

students. But such measures are the easy way out. Suspension and expulsion do not offer any lasting solution to the problem, and they deprive pupils of a deserved education. "Penalties without rehabilitation will not achieve lasting results," according to the authors.

There is a paucity of research on effective alternatives to suspension, and this report admits there is no one program that will solve all disciplinary problems. But several tactics have produced encouraging results and seem to be first steps on the way to rehabilitation—tactics such as consultation with parents, behavioral contracts, guidance clinics, evening school, and alternative programs and schools. Another option is work assignments, "based on the concept that a student should render some constructive services as retribution for misbehavior." Work assignments should not be the only alternative offered, and both the student and his parents should agree to the assignment and time period.

Only when all else fails should suspension be considered, and then strict attention must be paid to the legal rights of students. Relevant portions of South Carolina laws are included to guide administrators in the event that a pupil proves incorrigible and must be expelled or suspended.

Punishment is not only a primitive and ineffective response to student recalcitrance, but an admission that the schools have failed the student. The law requires principals to be fair, but a sense of decency should require them to be more than fair: they should use all other means at their disposal before isolating a student from the educational system that may be his or her only hope.

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46 **Stephens, Richard,** and **Thomson, Scott.** "Alternatives to Suspension." *The Practitioner*, 3, 4 (April 1977), pp. 1-12. ED 137 922.

Today's principal is in a quandary: the public expects him to enforce the rules, but court decisions have undercut his authority. The principal lives in a maze of conflicting expectations that makes student suspension a risky procedure at best. In this uncertain climate, it is no wonder that suspension is looked on as a last resort and that principals are considering other possibilities.

With this hazy situation, any guidelines are helpful, and Stephens and Thomson describe several states' definitions of behavior that warrants suspensions; continued class disruption, chronic tardiness, and possession of dangerous weapons are some examples. But it is the less extreme infractions that test an administrator's judgment and restraint. The authors classify alternatives to suspension under three headings and illustrate them with numerous programs from around the country.

First, there is *detention*, a common form of discipline that is being adapted to meet new circumstances. The Behavior Clinic at a Baton Rouge high school, for example, provides after-school group and individual counseling for recalcitrant students. *Intervention*, a second alternative, utilizes aid from school, judicial, and community agencies to work with the offender.

Prevention is, of course, the ultimate solution to discipline problems; various programs are attempting to head off trouble before it occurs. Schools are experimenting with counseling programs, student participation in planning, teacher inservice programs, and alternative programs that emphasize individualized study and concern for personal needs. "The goal is to motivate students to accept responsibility for their behavior and to respect themselves and others."

Stephens and Scott conclude with a lengthy list of projects that have worked, identifying each program's basic tenets, and giving the principal's name and address. This detailed information makes the document an important resource for administrators who recognize the need for workable alternatives to suspension.

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47 **Washington Research Project.** *School Suspensions: Are They Helping Children? A Report.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Children's Defense Fund, 1975. 270 pages. ED 113 797.

Using data gathered by DHEW's Office of Civil Rights, and supplemental information gathered by themselves, the Children's Defense Fund found that in the 1972-73 school year districts serving a little over half the student population of the United States suspended over one million children, resulting in a loss to the students of over four million school days, or over 22,000 school years. The vast majority of these suspensions were for minor offenses, and only 3 percent involved any form of criminal activity. Black students generally suffered from highly discriminatory treatment. Due process was seldom followed—in fact, parents and children were informed of their rights to a hearing in only 3.4 percent of the cases surveyed.

The report concludes that "the solution to school violence does not lie in more suspensions but less, for its causes are to be found more on the streets, where dropouts, pushouts, and suspended students pass the time among delinquent gangs in arms or drug trade; in the lack of work even when students are trained; and in the rates of illiteracy and its attendant frustration and anger." Using suspensions only when students "pose a direct and serious threat to people or property" is strongly advised, with alternative measures taken for lesser offenses.

The simplest measures can tend to ignore the causes of discipline problems, but if applied conscientiously may have an effect. These include staying after school, going to a school official's office, or transferring into a new class or program. Behavior contracts cost little except time and can impress students as well as permitting them a sense of responsibility. Student ombudsmen, peer group counseling, inschool centers, improved teacher training, work-study programs, and independent alternative schools have all helped reduce suspensions.

The book also contains interviews with educators who have succeeded in reducing or eliminating suspensions in their schools, and substantial background appendixes.

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4 The Basics Controversy

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48 **Amundson, Elden M.** "What Is the 'Back to Basics' Movement?" Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators annual meeting, Atlantic City, February 1976. 10 pages. ED 122 446.

Although Amundson's treatment of this subject is rather cursory, he does present a fairly balanced view of one of the chief underlying causes of the back-to-basics movement—the decline in student basic skills. And his perspective as a vice-president of the American Association of School Administrators is worth noting.

Amundson suggests that the back-to-basics movement "is a societal reaction to generalizations, excesses, misdirection, misunderstandings and in some instances, ill-advised philosophies and practices" in the schools. While educators can hardly be held responsible for all the ills besetting American education, there is certainly justification for many of the criticisms leveled against the schools by back-to-basics advocates. For example, the schools have been responsible for hiring far too many unprepared teachers whose own skills in basic language and arithmetic are pitifully inadequate.

Amundson cautions educators to beware of those who view the move to basics as "justification to limit the structure of the curriculum and thereby reduce school budgets." He advises educators to maintain their "commitment to concern for the whole child" and to remember that renewed emphasis on the basics will most probably require more funding, not less.

49 **Brodinsky, Ben.** "Back to the Basics: The Movement and Its Meaning." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, 7 (March 1977), pp. 522-27. EJ 153 638.

In this assessment of the back-to-basics movement, Brodinsky concisely reviews its causes and aims and examines its latest developments and impact on American education.

Prompted largely by reaction, the back-to-basics advocates generally desire an emphasis on the three basics in elementary school and the traditional academic subjects in secondary school. Instruction is to be teacher centered, employ traditional methodology, evaluation, and discipline, and favor traditional values. Enrichment studies and activities, innovations, and social services are to be eliminated.

Educators, Brodinsky contends, have countered the simplistic demands of basics hard-liners with the "new educational trinity" of minimal competency, proficiency testing, and the performance-based curriculum. Under the banner of the competency testing and competency-based education movement, educators are emphasizing not only the three basic skills, but also the development of survival skills—skills "needed for personal growth and for successful existence as citizen, consumer, jobholder, taxpayer, and member of a family."

Brodinsky does not draw a direct causal relationship between the back-to-basics pressures and the competency testing movement, but it is clear that the two are intertwined conceptually and politically. It seems that the public push for the basics and the

progressive theory of competency-based education have met, if uneasily, in the many competency programs instituted by legislative mandate. (For summaries of ERIC literature on competency testing and competency-based education, see chapter 8.)

Brodinsky reviews in detail recent district and state action in accord with the basics-competency movement and concludes by discussing the movement's long-term impact. It is possible, he states, that it will produce students more skilled in reading and computation and perhaps even writing. It may also clarify school goals, restore the authority of the classroom teacher, and promote more individualized instruction.

But the movement may also further the centralization of educational decision-making and overemphasize "testing, testing, testing" with all its inherent problems. Of greatest concern to skeptics is the possibility that it may lead education to stress the mechanical and dehumanize the learning process so that it loses its "great generating power."

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50 **Brodinsky, Ben.** *Defining the Basics of American Education. Fastback 95.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1977. 47 pages. ED 145 573.

What are the basics of education? In this report of a conference of educators and educational leaders, Brodinsky presents the participants' attempts to answer this complex question. The meeting of forty educators, legislators, public school administrators, state and national agency leaders, and representatives from higher education was cooperatively sponsored by three private foundations. According to Brodinsky, the participants represented a wide variety of views, from fundamentalist to liberal.

Brodinsky divides the basics defined by conference participants into two major categories—"Fundamentals in Subject Matter" and "Fundamentals in Student Development."

Subject matter, or curriculum, basics include reading (participants favored phonics or "decoding" as the first, most fundamental skill, with equally strong emphasis on comprehension); communication (writing "for pleasure and self-satisfaction" is as important as writing to learn the "rules and mechanics" of communication); mathematics (basic computational skills "represent a starting point," but acquisition of problem-solving skills is even more essential, according to participants); and science (memorization of facts is secondary to development of abilities to question, to collect data, to test theories, and to analyze the applications of science).

The basics of student development, which participants regarded as just as important as curriculum basics, include the development of social and civic responsibility, health, economic capability, creativity, use of leisure time, humaneness, and positive self-concept.

How should local school officials respond to pressure from back-to-basics advocates? Conference participants generated a list of "tactical guidelines" relating to school district policy formation: "Don't overreact or underreact to criticism or demands of basics advocates," "Avoid sloganeering," "Don't leave the task of responding to the basics advocates to public relations 'spokespersons' or to specialists in subject matter," "Don't assume an adversary position," "Avoid quick or partial responses to demands for change in the schools," and "Listen to the basics advocates with sympathy. Invite them to express their views at board meetings."

A list of "cautions" for state legislatures and departments of education was also generated, including the caution that "states should avoid a bandwagon approach to minimum competency laws and mandates."

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51 **DeTurk, Philip H.** "The Basics: Timeless or Mindless?" *National Elementary Principal,* 56, 5 (May/June 1977), pp. 51-54. EJ 158 776.

DeTurk argues that "unstructured education is never good education" and that the "whole fabric of teaching and learning, regardless of its philosophic design, must have a meaningful framework." Contrary to the claims of the back-to-basics advocates, a return to "the timeless traditions and eternal verities with which schooling practices have been blindly determined" would not provide the structure necessary for "good education," DeTurk maintains.

He cautions against the paranoia that sometimes characterizes the back-to-basics movement. Some back-to-basics advocates tend to see such disparate educational developments as team teaching, ungradedness, open classroom, program budgeting, and busing "as though they were all related and all branches of the same evil root." And he also cautions against seeing the schools as all-powerful shapers of society; "that we even suspect our schools as the guilty precursor of all our ills, or as the savior, is giving them more credit than they ever deserved."

DeTurk approves of the desire of parents to know what is going on in the schools and to be assured that their children are learning to read, write, and compute. But he believes that the methods used to bring about this "basic learning" must be determined by professional educators, not by the lay public, as back-to-basics supporters suggest.

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52 **Donelson, Ken,** editor. *Back-to-the-Basics in English Teaching.* Tempe: Arizona English Teachers Association, 1976. Entire issue of *Arizona English Bulletin,* 18, 2 (February 1976), 157 pages. ED 117 739.

Thirty-one articles collected in this issue of *Arizona English Bulletin* contain the views of educators on the back-to-basics movement and its impact on the teaching of language and communication skills, as well as its impact on education in general. As Editor Donelson comments, these articles examine "that much-praised, much-maligned, much-used, much-misused, much-misunderstood term, 'basics'."

Several authors note the nebulous nature of "basics." Allan Dittmer, for example, points out that besides its current variety of applications in education, back to basics has been used recently to

describe everything from religion to hamburgers. The result, according to Dittmer and others, is a rather appalling conceptual fuzziness.

The back-to-basics movement comes in for sharp criticism from some of the authors. Charles Weingartner, for example, maintains that the "simple-minded" notion that the three Rs are the only important basics "is congenial only to the kind of witless mentality that finds 'fundamentalism' of any kind a source . . . of reassuring misconceptions." While the other authors do not state their positions as vehemently as Weingartner, many agree with his criticism that the back-to-basics approach is oversimplified.

Other articles in this collection tackle the sticky problem of delineating the real basics of education, specifically, of language education. Bertrand Evans argues that the popular notion of "relevance" held by many back-to-basics advocates, as well as by some liberal, open educators, misdirects attention away from true basic skills and toward "the peripheral." The result is that the "relevantists," according to Evans, "are less interested, for example, in teaching children *to read* as a basic skill, than in teaching them to read road signs." Evans does not scorn the acquisition of such prosaic skills as competency-based education advocates usually propose. But he does maintain that the student possessing only these skills can hardly be considered well educated.

Lee Odell also condemns the superficial kind of relevance that leads educators to define the basics in very narrow and inadequate terms. He argues that reading, writing, and other language skills "are not the basics of a language arts program" or even of the language process itself. Instead, these skills are "manifestations of a set of intellectual processes" described by linguists and developmental psychologists. The back-to-basics approach does nothing to encourage the development of these underlying skills, according to Odell.

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53 **Down, A. Graham.** "Why Basic Education?" *National Elementary Principal,* 57, 1 (October 1977), pp. 28-32. EJ number not yet assigned.

Down, executive director of the Council for Basic Education, presents the council's position on basic education, examines the causes of the back-to-basics movement, and discusses current signs of what he sees as its positive and enduring impact on American education.

The council defines basic education, Down explains, not simply in terms of the "so-called three Rs," but instead as "competent instruction in all the fundamental disciplines, especially English, mathematics, history, geography, government, science, foreign languages, and the arts." Only competence in the knowledge and basic proficiencies of a liberal education, he maintains, can provide students with the skills, flexibility, and imagination to function adequately in contemporary society.

The council further advocates clear standards, well-structured curricula, responsiveness to individual learning rates, caution in innovation, and a deemphasis on students' social functioning. The council favors no particular methods of instruction, Down adds, except where one approach has been proved superior to others, as has the phonics approach to beginning reading instruction.

Accustomed to an adversarial stance, basic education advocates now find themselves trying to guide a strong back-to-basics trend, Down states. The trend seems to be the outgrowth of "educational consumerism," reaction against the proliferation of innovations of the past decades, and concern over declining achievement.

The basics trend is "more than mere nostalgia," Down judges, and merits an optimistic prognosis. Among the signs of its growth that he discusses are the revival of general education in colleges, the renewed interest in survey courses in the basic subjects in secondary schools, the rise of the alternative fundamental school, and the current nationwide interest in minimal competency testing.

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54 **House, Ernest R.,** and others. "Critiquing a Follow Through Evaluation." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 7 (March 1978), pp. 473-74. EJ 173 526.

A widely publicized evaluation of Project Follow Through, a K-3 extension of Head Start, concludes that basic skills approaches to educating disadvantaged children are superior to other approaches. But as House and his associates forcibly argue, the federally sponsored evaluation is misleading and fraught with problems. The evaluation compared three models of early childhood education—labeled "basic skills," "cognitive/conceptual," and "affective/cognitive"—applied to over twenty thousand children for a four-year period.

The evaluation's judgment in favor of basic skills approaches, they state, stems from three major errors—the misclassification of models, inadequate measurement, and flawed statistical analysis. The evidence shows, in fact, that no one approach is more effective than the others.

The authors do confirm, however, the evaluation's major finding that the effectiveness of a teaching approach varies greatly according to setting. "The peculiarities of individual teachers, schools, neighborhoods, and homes," they maintain, "influence pupils' achievement far more than whatever is designated by labels such as 'basic skills' or 'affective education'."

This finding of variable program effectiveness holds significant implications for policy-making. "When fully understood," they conclude, "it can serve as the basis of a new educational policy that honors local individuality in place of general labels."

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55 **Jarrett, James L.** "I'm for Basics, But Let Me Define Them." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 4 (December 1977), pp. 235-39. EJ 169 779.

"The meaning of basic education is far from self-evident," Jarrett writes. It is essential to find out just what the slogan means in given contexts and what it can and should mean. To help clarify its meaning, Jarrett reviews its various uses and the issues they raise and suggests some tentative responses to them. His essay, more a statement of belief than an argument, provides a balanced and suggestive examination of the issues.

In response to the problems posed by the poor performance of

high school graduates, he sketches out a possible remedy. The best place to set firm standards, he notes, may be at the level of university admission. If students must show competence to be admitted, they will more likely put effort into their secondary education. A system of testing and remedial help, such as that provided by California's new competency law, can help students come up to standards.

He also looks at the British system of examinations as a possible means of clarifying standards and improving performance. As he describes it, the system dispenses with graduation and a single diploma in favor of a series of optional examinations, advanced and ordinary, for the different disciplines. Students choose which exams and which levels to take according to the specific demands made by employers and universities.

When he comes to evaluate the back-to-basics movement, he finds its view of education to be both "too much" and "too little." It is too much "when it reaches over to include a lot of authoritarian discipline, the supposition that the more homework the better, and when it pronounces all experimental and enriched curricula anathema." It is too little when it focuses on a narrow range of skills to the detriment of other important skills.

For Jarrett, what is truly basic is not really "reading and writing and reckoning," but instead "thinking and feeling, using our senses, imagining, expressing, and communicating." The basic skills may provide a foundation, but they can provide only that. "Let our curricula," he concludes, "continue to be experimental, mixing the conventional and solid with the novel and the ethereal. Where is it written that one cannot maintain standards, hold fast to that which is essential *and* bring joy, zest into the classroom? Basics, then, but not grim basics, austere basics, basics that *must* be good for the soul since they are so damned dull."

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56 "Look Back, But Don't Leap Back Yet; Some Tough Questions Await You." *Updating School Board Policies*, 8, 6 (June 1977), pp. 1-5. EJ 162 252.

Before leaping onto the back-to-basics bandwagon, school board members should ask themselves four central questions, according to this article.

First, what skills are basic "and are they the same for everyone?" Critics of the back-to-basics movement "argue that whatever was basic to schools twenty-five years ago may not be exactly what today's students need to cope with what lies in their future."

Second, "do the basic schools actually boost achievement in basic skills?" The answer to this question is so far a qualified "yes." But the authors of this article point out that not only do basics schools attract highly motivated parents and students whose enthusiasm may well wear off as the newness of the idea passes, but that most of the students in these schools "probably would do well wherever they were."

Third, if higher test scores are what parents want, "will a stronger emphasis on basic skills in the regular instructional program—instead of a separate school—do just as well?" This article describes the Roswell, New Mexico, basic skills approach for instruction in all schools.

Fourth, what are the real reasons behind public pressure for back-to-basics schools? If friction and polarization characterize school district politics, then school officials can expect that conflict to pervade attempts to keep back-to-basics schools running smoothly, according to this article.

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57 **National School Boards Association.** *Back-to-Basics. NSBA Research Report 1978-1.* Washington, D.C.: 1978. 41 pages. ED 149 483.

The results of a 1977 survey of 786 school board members and administrators highlight this research report. Questioned about the back-to-basics movement at the annual National School Boards Association convention, the respondents generally reflected the public's positive attitude toward back to basics.

A majority of the board members polled agreed with the statement that "education standards have deteriorated; most schools today need to stress reading, writing, and math skills more than they do." Only 20 to 40 percent of the respondents considered subjects such as music, career education, driver education, literature, biology, or creative writing to be essential. Fewer than 9 percent agreed that "back-to-basics is a backward step in the growth of American education."

Two out of three board members said that their districts had taken or planned to take official action as a result of the back-to-basics movement. In many districts, the board members themselves first brought the back-to-basics issue before their boards. A majority of the respondents believes that "back-to-basics will have an impact on their local school district within five years."

The authors conclude that, given the positive attitudes of both the general public and school board members toward back-to-basics issues, "the climate in education *is* changing."

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58 **Pursell, William.** *A Conservative Alternative School: The A + School in Cupertino. Fastback Series, No. 67.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976. 43 pages. ED 119 388.

Pursell provides an insider's account of the Academics Plus program of the Cupertino Union School District, California, a basic

22 alternative program initiated by parents. Pursell, one of the organizers of the program, discusses the values and aims of its supporters, recounts its development, describes its features, and offers some recommendations for others interested in developing similar programs. His work is short on analysis, but it serves well as a statement of the views of the middle-class parents who support the back-to-basics movement.

The Academics Plus parents embody a conservative reaction to the progressive innovations of the sixties, which, Pursell charges, have weakened educational structure and subverted learning and traditional values. The Academics Plus program, in response, emphasizes structure; it employs teacher-centered instruction, self-contained classrooms, a clearly structured curriculum, and traditional evaluation. Although the program is not limited to the basics, it emphasizes the mastery of basic skills through traditional methods of drill. It recreates, Pursell states, "school as most of us knew it when we were children."

The initial impetus for program development came when a school board election crystallized parent unrest. Dissatisfied conservative parents banded together to create a basic alternative program and hold the school board to its pledge to serve the diverse needs of its public. The parents submitted a formal proposal in the spring of 1973 and began recruiting additional families and developing a curriculum. Although they received little cooperation from the schools, they were able to institute a K-6 program in one school that same fall. The parents sought to expand in subsequent years, but succeeded only in adding one sixth-grade class to the program.

Pursell judges the program a success. The response of the parents, he notes, has been outstanding: 98 percent indicated satisfaction with the program during its second year. The actual achievement of the students, however, is not made clear. Pursell gives data only for the first year, when the full program "generally scored at or above district norms on reading and math and below district norms on language arts."

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59 **Resnick, Daniel P.**, and **Resnick, Lauren B.** "The Nature of Literacy: An Historical Exploration." *Harvard Educational Review*, 47, 3 (August 1977), pp. 370-85. EJ 167 146.

The "still inchoate" back-to-basics movement looks to past methods as a remedy for the present problems of American literacy. But as the authors explain, past solutions can work only when social conditions and educational goals remain stable. Seeking to assess the relevance of past models of literacy training for present needs, the authors examine three such models—Protestant-religious, civic-national, and elite-technical—and discuss changes in American educational perspectives.

Their review reveals that the nature of literacy criteria and training has sharply shifted during the past centuries. The Protestant-religious and civic-national models (exemplified by literacy training in seventeenth-century Sweden and French public education during the past century) provided a low level of literacy for a large population. They required their students to show only the mastery of a limited set of familiar texts. In contrast, the elite-technical model (exemplified by French higher technical education since the eighteenth century) has demanded a very high level of literacy of a small elite. It has viewed literacy in terms of theoretical knowledge and problem-solving skills. Twentieth-century American education stands alone in demanding a high level of literacy (the capacity to understand unfamiliar texts) of an entire population.

The present dismay over the failings of American education, they argue, stems in part from our only recently developed high literacy expectations. Much of our difficulty in meeting them, in fact, "can be attributed to the relatively rapid extension to large populations of educational criteria that were once applied to only a limited elite."

We cannot return to the past, they conclude, "because there is little to go back to in terms of pedagogical method, curriculum, or school organization. The old tried and true approaches, which nostalgia prompts us to believe might solve current problems, were designed neither to achieve the literacy standard sought today nor to assure successful literacy for everyone."

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60 **Schofield, Dee.** *Issues in Basic Education. School Leadership Digest, Number 25. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 27.* Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1976. 31 pages. ED 128 873.

"The back-to-basics movement has a distinctive grass roots aura, unlike the liberal education movements of the 1960s, which were primarily the products of educators," according to Schofield. The result is that this movement is definitely political in tone and in substance, as this author notes.

Schofield points out that although not all supporters of the basics agree with the strictly fundamentalist approach to education, most

back-to-basics schools share at least some conservative characteristics. Fundamentalists see education as the means of transmitting and preserving the values of the dominant culture, not as a means of critically examining or changing those values. Uniformity in behavior, in teaching method, and in subject matter is emphasized in fundamentalist education. And going back to basics is seen by many fundamentalists as a way to reduce school budgets by cutting out the so-called "frills."

The conservative cast to the back-to-basics movement has prompted some educators to react very defensively and charge that the fundamentalists are out to sabotage American education. But, as Schofield points out, "It is no more correct or enlightening for educators to condemn fundamentalists as being ignorant and backward than it is for back-to-basics advocates to condemn educators for undermining and destroying the American way of life."

In spite of the fact that the back-to-basics movement reflects a general swing toward conservatism, Schofield does not believe that fundamentalist, back-to-basics education will become the dominant form of education in America. As she states, "fundamentalist philosophy simply does not sit well with many parents and educators, who are not prepared to throw out all the educational innovations of the past decade."

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61 **Washburn, S. L.** "Beyond the Basics: Some Future Uses of the Past." *National Elementary Principal*, 57, 1 (October 1977), pp. 33-38. EJ number not yet assigned.

Washburn finds himself "deeply disturbed" by the back-to-basics movement. Its view of education, he judges, is "narrow and fallacious" and clearly inadequate for the needs of contemporary society. The basic skills may have been sufficient for all but the elite a century ago, but they are no longer so. The progress of science and technology and the new responsibilities placed on citizens have radically altered the purposes of education and its relation to society. "There was never a time," he states, "when the word 'back' was less appropriate in the vocabulary of a principal or teacher."

The back-to-basics movement, he continues, also adopts a misguided view of human nature. According to its conservative view, "most students will not learn unless forced to do so, and until a wide variety of educational practices provide the force." The movement accordingly emphasizes external control and discipline and, in so doing, denies the obligation to make learning meaningful and to provide intellectual motivation.

Washburn counters with a second view of human nature, which he wishes to see incorporated in a radical reform of education. Human beings, for Washburn, are "active, creative, and eager to learn, until the desire to learn has been extinguished by the schools."

Education that will serve children's potential and society's needs, he argues, must reunite learning with the life of the adult community and relate school activity to "the important problems of living in a rapidly changing technical world." It must also recognize the implications of the maturation process and restructure learning to accommodate children's changing abilities and needs. In addition, it should provide greater encouragement for learning with a curriculum that makes success a norm.

Washburn concludes with a discussion of two specific recommendations for reforming education. Peer teaching can help both tutor and pupil learn as it also helps revolutionize the social structure of schools. A case study method, which calls for the analysis of current and controversial issues from the real world, can give meaning and importance to learning and bring many disciplines to bear on vital issues.

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62 **Wellington, James K.** "American Education: Its Failure and Its Future." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 58, 7 (March 1977), pp. 527-30. EJ 153 639.

"American education is failing," according to Wellington, a past member of the Scottsdale, Arizona, board of education. Wellington attributes this failure to two major factors. First, a lack of discipline in the home and family, "plus inconsistent administration of school discipline problems," have rendered school disciplinary procedures virtually meaningless. Second, "inconsistent grading standards" and grades that fail to reflect the student's true level of achievement have not only inspired the wrath of parents, but have caused great difficulty for students. Wellington cites examples of students who make good grades in high school, only to find themselves penalized in college by their deficiencies in basic skills.

A "fundamental," back-to-basics approach would remedy these two central problems, according to Wellington. He lists "five primary goals" of the fundamental school: (1) to teach basic reading, writing, speaking, spelling, and computation skills; (2) to teach students their history and heritage and "to reason in a logical and objective manner"; (3) to challenge each student to do his or her best; (4) to encourage accountability through testing and grading; and (5) "to reinforce parental teaching of citizenship, respect, discipline, and personal responsibility."

While Wellington is a staunch supporter of the "fundamental" school, he acknowledges that this form of traditionalist education is not for everyone. To accommodate the variety of needs and desires of parents and students, he advocates "that school districts adopt alternative schools." But for school districts that are unable to afford other forms of educational alternatives, the fundamental school should still be provided, since it "is an idea whose time again has come."

EA 011 105

5 Classroom Discipline

ED163625

63 **Abrell, Ronald L.** "Classroom Discipline without Punishment." *Clearing House*, 50, 4 (December 1976), pp. 171-73. EJ 157 885.

Discipline in the classroom is fundamental to learning, but coercion is inhumane and rarely works. It is the responsibility of the teacher to assist students in achieving *self*-discipline, writes Abrell.

He includes in this article a list of personal and environmental factors that should be cultivated to minimize discipline problems. The method of correction he proposes places ultimate responsibility for behavior on the student: no detentions, isolation, suspensions, or other types of negative punishment are to be used. The first time a student misbehaves, the teacher corrects him or her in an unobtrusive way. If another incident occurs, the teacher reminds the student that his behavior is unsatisfactory and that the rules must be observed. Following subsequent acts of misconduct, the student meets with both the teacher and the principal.

Abrell suggests that if the student believes he cannot function productively under existing conditions, a change of teachers or school may be in order. If this change fails to work, the student is directed to leave school and to seek another institution that will meet his needs more satisfactorily.

64 **Doyle, Walter.** "Helping Beginning Teachers Manage Classrooms." *NASSP Bulletin*, 59, 395 (December 1975), pp. 38-41. EJ 135 566.

Many beginning teachers encounter difficulty managing their classes. To the extent these problems are not rectified during student teaching, supervisory personnel in the schools should offer first-year teachers the needed training, Doyle contends.

Doyle explains the work of Jacob S. Kounin, whose research has substantiated the connection between discipline and general classroom management skills. Kounin's findings indicate that what a teacher does before misbehavior takes place is crucial in determining overall disciplinary success and sustaining task involvement. In refining his concepts, Kounin was able to identify four dimensions of managerial skill: "withitness," which refers to the teacher's ability to communicate to students his or her awareness of what is happening in the classroom; "overlap," the teacher's ability to perform two or more activities at one time; "movement management," the teacher's skill in maintaining momentum; and "group focus," the teacher's competence in involving all class members in each classroom event.

Doyle believes that Kounin's framework can be helpful in identifying the source of classroom management problems and provides a practical illustration dealing with the concept of group focus.

65 **Estadt, Gary J.; Willower, Donald J.;** and **Caldwell, William E.** "School Principals' Role Administration Behavior and Teachers' Pupil Control Behavior: A Test of the Domino Theory." *Contemporary Education*, 47, 4 (Summer 1976), pp. 207-12. EJ 152 436.

The domino theory of administration holds that behavior at one level of the hierarchy determines behavior at the next lower level, and so on, through the organization. In testing this theory, Estadt and his colleagues sought to determine whether the style used by secondary school principals in administering rules governing teachers affects the manner in which those teachers control the behavior of their students.

Using a rule administration scale developed by Caldwell and some of his associates, teachers were asked to characterize their principals. The principals were then divided into three categories on the basis of leadership style: representative, punishment-centered, and mock. Examples of items from the respective categories are "The principal would assume you have a good reason if you did not attend a scheduled teachers' meeting," "If you left school early, the principal has a method of checking and would penalize you," and "The principal would disregard your absence at a scheduled teachers' meeting." Students at the same schools ranked their teachers on a humanistic-custodial continuum.

The authors hypothesized that in schools headed by principals in the "representative" leadership category teachers would tend to be humanistic, whereas in those headed by "punishment-centered" principals the teachers would be more custodial. Neither of these hypotheses was supported by the data.

"The major result of the present investigation is its failure to find any support for the domino theory," write the authors. "At least for the present sample, the secondary school principal's pattern of rule administration with regard to teachers has no relationship to the teacher's pupil control behavior." The authors note, however, that in interpreting these results it is important to recognize that while the instruments used purport to examine behavior, both do so by tapping perceptions of behavior.

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66 **Garza, Gonzalo.** "Classroom Management: Implications for Supervision." Paper presented at the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development annual meeting, Houston, March 1977. 16 pages. ED 141 879.

"CLASHES WILL BEGIN NEXT TUESDAY" ran a misspelled newspaper headline heralding the new school year. The misprint was inadvertent, but the headline was, nevertheless, disturbingly accurate. A recent poll of 3,400 teachers revealed that classroom discipline was ranked among the most serious problems afflicting education today. Garza does not pretend to have all the answers, but he does offer a useful summary of current approaches and some helpful precepts for sound classroom management.

An awareness of the approaches and their philosophical underpinnings may prompt teachers to try out new strategies and, in the process, meet student needs more thoroughly. First, Garza outlines six basic strategies—authoritarian, permissive, social and emotional, group process, behavior modification, and "bag of tricks"—with short discussions of the basic assumptions and role of the teacher in each one. From there, he moves on to the practical side of classroom management. In a potpourri of eighteen suggestions, he covers a wide range of situations—from the inefficacy of group punishment to the perils of assigning extra schoolwork as a punitive measure.

Garza's report does not attempt to break any new ground, but it is a succinct survey of trends and tactics in classroom discipline. It should help educators reassess techniques that may have become more habitual than effectual.

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67 **George, Paul S.** "Changing Classroom Behavior: The School Principal and Contingency Management." *NASSP Bulletin*, 56, 368 (December 1972), pp. 31-36. EJ 065 976.

68 **Drabman, Ronald S.; Jarvie, Gregory J.;** and **Archbold, James.** "The Use and Misuse of Extinction in Classroom Behavioral Programs." *Psychology in the Schools*, 13, 4 (October 1976), pp. 470-75. EJ 146 258.

In their efforts to improve both discipline and the quality of education, behavioral scientists have suggested a variety of procedures designed to reduce unwanted behaviors. Contingency management involves rewarding good behavior and ignoring inappropriate behavior. George outlines how this technique works and how it can be used by the school principal. Drabman and colleagues look at some of the pitfalls and how to avoid them.

When educational researchers study the tasks performed by school administrators, they find that principals spend a disproportionate amount of their time trying to change the behavior of teachers and students. Most conventional methods are negative. George believes contingency management provides a positive alternative. Based on the law of association and the fact that behavior seems to be more affected by what follows it than by what precedes it, the technique requires four essential steps. First, select the behavior to be changed. For a teacher the principal might select the production of long-range lesson plans. For a student the target behavior might be the extinction of fighting with other pupils. Second, study the behavior and record the number of times it occurs. Third, choose an appropriate reward and use it immediately following the presence of the desired behavior or the absence of the undesirable behavior. Fourth, look at how often the behavior now occurs to see if the strategy is working.

George advocates contingency management as an approach to solving day-to-day problems. He also believes its use by the principal can improve the attitudes of students toward school. "The principal in the American school is something of a symbol of the entire educational system," he writes. Positive or negative associations transfer from him to the school experience as a whole.

The article by Drabman and his associates focuses on one aspect of contingency management, the use of extinction, or contingent ignoring, in the classroom. They believe the technique can be effective if properly implemented, but caution it must be taken step by step.

"Because of the ease of initiating the extinction procedure, it is tempting to skip the baseline phase," but it is essential that the

26 teacher first determine who presently is reinforcing the negative behavior, write the authors. If the other students, not the teacher, are the source of reinforcement, the teacher might choose instead to reward them for ignoring it. Once the process has begun, the teacher must be committed to ignoring the behavior each time it occurs and must be prepared to see a temporary increase or possibly the substitution of another, inappropriate form of behavior. For this reason, it is critical that the teacher make acceptable alternatives available to the child. For example, if the target behavior involves talking in class, the teacher should instruct the child that the correct way to communicate is by raising one's hand, and then reinforce the child with immediate attention when he or she remembers to do this.

69 **Grantham, Marvin L.,** and **Harris, Clifton S., Jr.** "A Faculty Trains Itself to Improve Student Discipline." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 57, 10 (June 1976), pp. 661-64. EJ 139 344.

It is easy for school personnel to blame lack of discipline on the community, but deploring the present situation and waiting for society to change is a nonsolution, in the opinion of these authors. Hence, the faculty of the Herbert Marcus Elementary School of Dallas, Texas, asked themselves, "Are we part of the problem?" and began a year-long staff development effort to provide the tools for better classroom management.

The heart of the plan was a series of development sessions led by the principal and outside professionals. In these sessions, staff explored alternative teaching and disciplinary techniques. Three students in each class were identified to receive individualized attention based on the new things the teachers were learning. Three additional students in each class were selected to act as controls. At the beginning and end of the year, observations were made of each teacher in the classroom, and achievement tests were administered to both sets of students. The results, report the authors, were gratifying. Not only had the teachers become better managers, but there had been a marked decrease in discipline problems, as well as a modest increase in pupil achievement.

The Marcus School staff thinks that the best approach to discipline is a preventive one—the provision of a variety of educational and environmental alternatives that will interest, challenge, and motivate the pupil. "Like it or not," conclude the authors, "the first place to cope with disciplinary problems is in the classroom. The teacher must make the primary adjustments—even while the pupil is learning to assume responsibility for his actions."

70 **Karpowitz, Dennis H.** "Reinstatement as a Method to Increase the Effectiveness of Discipline in the School or Home." *Journal of School Psychology,* 15, 3 (February 1977), pp. 230-37. EJ 167 272.

The literature on discipline has given teachers some help in curbing misbehavior, but much of the advice is more suggestive than practical. There is overwhelming agreement, for example, that an immediate response is a more effective deterrent than a delayed reaction. Also, the research indicates that a harsh punishment is more inhibiting than a mild one. While such insights may be valid, they are not always practicable. After all, a teacher cannot always reprimand a child within one second of the offense, and there are moral and legal limits to the severity of a response. What teachers and parents need, Karpowitz advises, is a form of discipline that will not be diluted by delay and that will be effective without being too extreme.

Karpowitz makes a step toward filling this need with his study of reinstatement (rehearsal). With its reenactment of the whole situation that led up to the transgression, this technique is particularly appropriate to a situation where the authority cannot respond at once. Using ninety first-grade boys as subjects, Karpowitz found that discipline coupled with reinstatement was significantly more effective than punishment alone. He does not belabor the implications that his conclusions might have for educators, but teachers looking for ways to control recalcitrant students should not need elaborate help in applying the principles of reinstatement in the schoolroom.

If a child were to hit a classmate, for example, the teacher might carefully explain what led up to the misbehavior before reprimanding the offender.

The reinstatement method has its liabilities—insufficient time to devote to every mishap is an obvious one—but it is a useful addition to an instructor's repertoire of responses. Those situations that seem to demand immediate discipline may not be beyond the teacher's control.

71 **Kindsvatter, Richard.** "A New View of the Dynamics of Discipline." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 5 (January 1978), pp. 322-25. EJ 169 844.

"A common misunderstanding can be avoided," Kindsvatter maintains, "if we do not think of discipline as the controlling or punishing behaviors of teachers." Class management is more than telling pupils to be quiet or depriving them of a privilege. The educator's role is to help students understand their own actions and to guide them toward acceptable alternatives.

Kindsvatter breaks discipline down into three levels—behavior expectations, behavior adjustment, and control techniques. While he deals with discipline from start to finish, the assessment required in the second stage is of particular interest. An essential basis for order in the classroom is accurate identification of the motivation for the misbehavior. Teachers are prone to assume that all fractious students are only capricious and inattentive. Boisterousness or incessant talking, educators are likely to conclude, is only the result of overactive hormones, and control measures are quickly invoked.

But the problems are often more deep-seated than instructors tend to think. The unruly pupil may have severe and chronic emotional problems or a negative attitude toward the teacher and the class. In these cases, conventional means of enforcement are not only futile but harmful. Educators must learn to differentiate between the various sources of misbehavior and react appropriately.

Kindsvatter charts the possible sources of misbehavior and elements of discipline on a "3 x 3 matrix." It is a convenient tool in beginning to understand the complex dynamics of a specific disciplinary situation; intuition is not enough.

72 **Leviton, Harvey S.** "The Individualization of Discipline for Behavior Disordered Pupils." *Psychology in the Schools,* 13, 4 (October 1976), pp. 445-48. EJ 146 252.

As Leviton points out, there is a growing literature on the individualization of instruction. But little, if anything, has been written about using different methods of discipline for different students. In this paper, he presents a rationale for individualized discipline and proposes a tentative strategy for matching the five types of behavior-disordered children identified by H.C. Quay with twenty potential forms of discipline.

For example, Quay has labelled one category of children "anxious withdrawn." He describes them as fearful, underbehaving, rather than misbehaving. For these children, Leviton suggests student/teacher conferences and the rewarding of good behavior. Inappropriate forms of discipline might include dismissal from class and corporal punishment. "The perceptive teacher may step down hard on an aggressive child when he interrupts, while identical behavior from a timid child would be reinforced or encouraged," he says.

Leviton includes a table summarizing appropriate teacher behavior for each of the five types of children, but writes it is meant not as a "cookbook" but "as an attempt to systematize the differences in children's behavior and the appropriate techniques for coping with it."

73 **National School Boards Association.** *Report: Discipline in Our Big City Schools.* Washington, D.C.: 1977. 45 pages. ED 144 210.

Concerned about the growing problem of school discipline, the National School Boards Association's Council of Big City Boards of Education appointed an ad hoc committee to take a look at some of the nation's largest school districts. The committee contacted more than one hundred districts and in this report outlines its findings and recommendations.

As the committee undoubtedly had anticipated, the large majority of schools contacted reported that incidents of disruptive behavior are increasing in frequency. Disruptive behavior seems most prevalent among students in junior high or in their early high school years. At the elementary level, the problem appears to be growing but has not yet reached the "serious" stage. Approximately 75 percent of the districts surveyed report nonattendance (tardiness/truancy/cutting class) as the most frequent single cause of disciplinary action. Other oft-cited problems are violations of school regulations, assaults, verbal abuse of teachers, theft, vandalism, and class disruption.

Data submitted to the committee did not indicate whether disruptive behavior occurs more frequently among minority students. It is apparently true that some discipline problems are acute in large, urban areas, concludes the committee, but "there is no evidence to suggest that these problems are related to the students' ethnic or racial background."

The report includes examples of how various districts handle discipline and concludes with a six-point plan developed by the committee for use by districts experiencing discipline problems.

74 **Olivero, James L.** *Discipline . . . No. 1 Problem in the Schools? 40 Positive, Preventive Prescriptions for Those Who Care. . . . Operations Notebook 17.* Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1977. 6 pages. ED 145 566.

Olivero begins this report by citing some pretty grim statistics about the increasing incidence of violence and other serious discipline problems in the school. However, his central premise is a positive one. He firmly believes these problems can be overcome if teachers, students, and parents work together, and he includes numerous, concrete examples of how this can be done.

The first part of the report is devoted to a discussion of causes, at school and at home. "Having been in numerous schools the past decade," he says, "I've been amazed at the number of parents who

28 have indicated they teach their children to fight."

In the remainder of the report he outlines in detail some forty innovative ideas that have been tried by various schools across the country. Involving students, faculty, and parents, these ideas include a rumor committee initiated by students at a Seattle junior high to avert misunderstandings between students, personalized approaches to counseling, ways to alleviate stress among teachers, and the rescheduling of field trips so parents can participate.

"Neither parents nor staff can attack the problem of discipline independently and be effective," says Olivero. "Both parties must team *with* students to establish and maintain a positive learning climate."

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75 **Rathbun, Dorothy.** "How to Cope in the Middle School Jungle." *Learning*, 6, 3 (November 1977), pp. 40, 46-47, 100. EJ 176 427.

Rathbun is writing from the trenches, not the tower. This involvement with the daily realities of a teacher's life in the middle school is reflected in her blunt assessment, "putting up every day with 150 squirming humans on the brink of puberty" is nothing but "plain hard work." The only effective way to handle the situation, she says, is to "*present yourself as an adult and be in charge.*"

With their misguided attempts to "be a pal," beginning teachers are apt to abdicate their power. The result is rarely the harmony that was so earnestly sought; more than likely chaos will ensue, and the naive instructor may rue the day he or she ever put a foot in the "middle school jungle." Rathbun is sympathetic, but she insists that teachers need to approach a class as authorities, not as friends. Educators should therefore insist on a proper form of address, and Tompkins will experience less frustration and be more effective than will just plain Jim. Dress should also be formal, and the teacher's language should be dignified; slang and profanity will make an instructor sound more absurd than "with it." Teachers should remember that their primary responsibility is to teach—not to entertain or to win popularity contests. In the long run, it is quality instruction that will win students' respect and cooperation. Finally, it is essential that teachers maintain order at all times.

With this emphasis on authority, Rathbun may sound as if she stalks around the classroom with a pointer in one hand and a switch in the other. That is not the case. She recognizes the perils of overreaction and counsels against them; restraint and common sense are in order. It is best not to send students to the office, for "you are in charge, and you *can* handle it yourself if you try." If a discipline matter cannot be handled by a "judicious use of well-rehearsed glares, frowns, pointed fingers or set jaws," instructors should be careful of what they say, since they may compound the trouble with careless phrasing or empty threats. A command like "Doris, knock it off right now!" will probably encourage Doris to knock a book on the floor, and a promise of "something drastic" may prompt students to find out what those measures might be.

These and other suggestions are a refreshing antidote to the many high-minded but unrealistic homilies that abound in the literature on classroom management. The novice teacher needs to survive the day, and Rathbun's pragmatic advice is probably going to be more helpful than are idealistic schemes that would sacrifice order for "involvement."

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76 **Stoops, Emery,** and **King-Stoops, Joyce.** *Discipline or Disaster? Fastback Series, No. 8.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1975. 38 pages. ED 112 484.

One of a series of publications put out by the Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, this little book presents a clear and concise introduction to the subject of school discipline. The authors begin with a general discussion of the concept of discipline and follow it with a section on discipline policies. "To avoid anarchy and disaster in a school situation, there must be positive regulations and standards for student behavior," write the authors. "These policies should be expressed in writing for the district, the building, and the classroom."

The last two sections of the book deal with classroom discipline and how to set classroom standards. The authors describe how to handle specific types of behavior problems and list tips on classroom control. For example, be in the room ahead of the students and start class promptly. Learn and use students' names as soon as possible. Be prepared. Be consistent. When challenged by a student, do not take it personally. Confer often with parents. Employ the three F's: Be friendly, fair, and firm.

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77 **Tanner, Laurel N.** *Classroom Discipline for Effective Teaching and Learning.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978. 214 pages. ED 150 750.

[illegible] treated school discipline as a form of oppression, while the seventies have embraced rigid control as part of a "return to basics." With such wild fluctuations, it is no wonder that classroom discipline has turned into a political issue and that educators have lost sight of its purpose. For discipline, Tanner reminds us, is an integral part of teaching, not an unfortunate adjunct; it provides an essential basis for the self-direction that is the goal of education.

Recognition of the necessity, even the desirability, of discipline is only the beginning of an educator's task, however. The obvious questions arise: How should problems be treated? What model of discipline is best? Tanner does not offer pat answers since there is no one "best" mode of discipline. The child's stage of development is the crucial factor here, for what is appropriate at one level will be inappropriate—and even harmful—at another. As children grow older, they are less likely to accept an adult's decree as law simply because it emanates from an adult. The teacher who continues to treat fifth-graders as first-graders, then, is inevitably going to antagonize the class and create strife. A teacher's job is to encourage growth, and there is no cause for hand wringing because youngsters do not remain in awe of adults. Discipline should change with the child's stage of development and help him or her move to the next stage.

Tanner goes on to apply this perspective to a variety of contexts—authority, teaching, interest and attention, external

influences, unsocialized students, and self-esteem, offering important insights and useful suggestions along the way. But the chapter of the most immediate significance to practitioners is on dealing with discipline problems. Tanner emphasizes that it is not enough to stop disruptive behavior: the student's energies must be redirected toward a constructive activity. "Stop it" is, therefore, a less effective command than is a statement along the lines of "Edward, stop bothering Susan and work on your story or read your library book."

While it is essential to keep classroom activities going, teachers should be careful not to sacrifice long-range goals for momentary cooperation. "As an illustration, giving a pupil an overload of homework as punishment is hardly likely to generate positive attitudes toward education, yet one of the aims of school is to encourage individuals to seek further education throughout their lives." The instructor should, moreover, be wary of overreacting to a particular incident; a stern look may be a more effective response to disruption than a loud reprimand.

Tanner's work is a substantial contribution to the literature. She not only has incorporated the findings of other researchers, but also has taken an original tack that never neglects the practical for the grandiose.

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78 **Wilde, John W.,** and **Sommers, Peggy.** "Teaching Disruptive Adolescents: A Game Worth Winning." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 5 (January 1978), pp. 342-43. EJ 169 849.

With drugs, profanity, disruption, and violence plaguing the classroom, teachers are, understandably enough, looking for new ways to handle discipline problems. But those educators who expect to curb behavior problems with new means of punishment may be suffering from "terminal myopia," according to Wilde and Sommers. Teachers tend to wait until student misbehavior has reached the point of outright disruption before dipping into their arsenals of responses—behavior modification, contracts, "teacher effectiveness training," yoga, and so forth. By then the situation may be well beyond control; prevention, not elimination, is the only effective way to deal with disorder in the classroom.

Wilde and Sommers offer four suggestions for eradicating discipline problems before they start. First, students should be given a rationale for the subject matter they are being asked to master. One high school science teacher, for example, begins a term with a presentation of slides depicting striking phenomena—from straws embedded in telephone poles to light bulbs that operate without electricity. After igniting interest, he goes on to explain how the class will probe some of nature's mysteries.

A second step is to establish individual goals for students—sometimes a difficult task due to differences in their abilities. But it can be done. An eleventh-grade English teacher prescribes a weekly set of tasks for her students, and the results have been encouraging.

A third suggestion for heading off misbehavior before it starts is to allow pupils to participate in defining their own goals—"thus the teacher can avoid head-to-head confrontations that bring ulcers and gray hairs." Finally, classroom discipline should not be based on rules from on high; students should be allowed some input in the establishment of rules and consequences. They might, for example, decide what is acceptable behavior and fix the responses for infractions.

The authors admit that "the suggestions presented here are basic—almost obvious." But educators occasionally need to be reminded that sensible and sensitive teaching can make learning a team sport, not a clash of adversaries.

EA 011 106

6 Communication Skills

ED163626

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79 **Batten, Joe D.** "Face-to-Face Communication." *The Personnel Administrator,* 21, 2 (February 1976), pp. 51-54. EJ 153 582.

Batten, the author of a best-selling management book, believes that survey results and the discussions of management researchers indicate that "the manager's *total* effectiveness rises or falls directly in proportion to his 'face-to-face' skills—his interpersonal insights and actions." In this article he outlines the essential elements of truly effective one-to-one relationships.

First of all, a leader should remain both vulnerable and open. That is, a leader should remain flexible and responsive to new ideas and be willing to "stick his neck out" at times. This kind of open posture is essential for a leader's continued growth and ability to relate empathetically with others. "The defensive, invulnerable person," Batten notes, "plateaus early in life in terms of growth, vitality, and the capacity to obtain 'followership'."

The manager should avoid what Batten calls "negative listening . . . the tendency to hear the other person out and then say what you were going to say anyway." And he should be aware of "body English," but be careful not to "judge another according to past biases or stereotypes."

Batten encourages leaders to avoid the tendency to label, box, or categorize others. Rather, "we should try to see the other person as being in a state of flow, of ongoing growth." Instead of limiting a person by looking for his or her weaknesses, a leader should concentrate on the person's strengths and expect full use of these strengths. This, says Batten, fulfills in the other person a central human requirement—the need to feel in some way significant as a person.

80 **Gray, John W.,** and **Ward, Allan L.** "Improving Communications Between Student and Principal." *NASSP Bulletin,* 58, 384 (October 1974), pp. 3-12. EJ 103 473.

Students tend to equate the amount of time their principal spends with them with the amount of care he or she has for them. Thus Gray and Ward encourage principals to increase the number and quality of personal contacts they make with students and to get to know the concerns of the "inner student."

Communication quality can be increased by such techniques as paraphrasing and feedback. For example, a principal should encourage students to reflect on and respond to statements he makes. In turn, he should listen carefully to what a student is saying and then attempt to paraphrase what that student has said.

Principals should attempt to initiate dialogue with students about the concerns and questions that most occupy their minds. One technique for getting to know the real interests of students is to ask them to write on unsigned papers the questions that most deeply concern them. When the authors did this with several classes of college freshmen, they found that the students were thinking about such basic issues as the purpose of life, the reasons for wars, and the way to personal happiness. The authors ranked the varied questions according to how often they were asked and gave the resulting

"concern profile" back to the group.

Gray and Ward believe that administrators can take a long step toward improving communication by realizing that students want dialogue about serious human problems, instead of either pat answers or avoidance of the issues. To facilitate such dialogue, they recommend that principals voice their own concerns about some of the issues that students mention in their concern profile.

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81 **Ingari, Sandro.** "A Case Study in Human Relations." *NASSP Bulletin* 60, 401 (September 1976), pp. 103-6. EJ 153 064.

In this article, Ingari constructs a fictitious situation in which principal-faculty relations are very strained. In the process of writing the principal out of this dilemma, he outlines several useful techniques for improving interpersonal relations between principal and faculty.

Ingari's main argument is that by increasing the opportunities for informal contact between principal and faculty, the level of mutual trust and understanding between them can be greatly increased. He outlines several ways that a principal can increase his or her level of contact with faculty, while deemphasizing his authoritarian role.

For example, the principal can use attendance at extracurricular events, such as concerts, plays, and sporting events, to increase his opportunities for informal dialogue with coaches and faculty members. Or he may make it a point to eat his lunch with the faculty rather than in his office. One of the simplest techniques is to show an interest in faculty members by inquiring, whenever practical, about husbands, wives, or children.

Ingari also suggests that a principal set up weekly informal "rap sessions" with teachers in which he would concentrate on *listening* to faculty members' opinions and grievances. He might also leave his office door open whenever possible and encourage instructors to drop by for informal chats.

Small changes in behavior such as these, concludes Ingari, can do much to improve the effectiveness of an educational leader, while improving the general communications climate of his school.

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82 **Nostrand, Peter F.,** and **Shelly, Richard W.** *An Educational Leadership Listening Model.* 1973. 14 pages. ED 087 100.

Effective listening is not merely a simple skill but "an additive series of abilities." Nostrand and Shelly define five distinct skills involved in successful listening, two of which are practiced during the actual verbal exchange, and three after the conversation has ended.

The authors call the period of actual verbal intercourse the "active phase" of listening. The listener exercises his "concentrative" skill by being fully aware of what is being said, avoiding the pitfalls of simply *appearing* to be listening, or thinking ahead of the speaker. The listener also asks clarifying questions when necessary to assure "comprehensive input." "Appreciative" listening extends from concentrative listening when the listener attempts to understand the speaker's viewpoint or frame of reference. These two skills, when properly practiced, assure a clear reception of the message.

The "post-active phase" begins after the listener has heard the whole of the speaker's message. It consists of "reflection on the *totality* of input during the foregoing active phase," and can take place "during a pause in the conversation or after the communicators have physically parted company." Nostrand and Shelly have subdivided this process of "thinking about what's been said" into analytic, critical, and creative components.

The analytic component is defined as a "sorting process" in which the listener classifies statements by the speaker according to their relevance to particular topics. The listener should try to be as objective as possible here, avoiding the rejection of statements because of disagreement or because the statement is threatening.

The critical listening component is a judgment process in which statements are weighed according to their "degree of relevance" to the topic. The authors admit that this is a subjective process, but they think that a listener can largely avoid bias in his "weighings" by being as methodical and objective as possible.

The weighed statements are then summed to yield a complete picture of what was said on the topic. This is the "synthesis" stage of the creative listening component. Finally, in the "evaluation" stage, the new view is integrated with the listener's own ideas to yield an expanded understanding of the topic. This new conception then acts as a fertile ground for the response process. The authors include several diagrams to illustrate their model.

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83 **Orlando, Joseph M.** "Do You Lock Out Associates?" *School Business Affairs,* 41, 2 (February 1975), p. 35. EJ 110 966.

A "lock-out," as defined by Orlando, is any behavior by a school administrator that blocks needed communication. Lock-outs can include not responding to inquiries by fellow administrators or subordinates, not communicating with fellow workers when needed, or assuming that others have information when they don't.

For example, an administrator can practice lock-out simply by not telling his secretary where he'll be. Or he can file, upon receipt, all directives that come across his desk, without making them available to those persons they affect. Or he may fail to acknowledge another person when he benefits from that person's services.

Other common forms of lock-out are practiced when administrators do not read their professional literature, fail to attend state, regional, and national conferences, or when they do not read changes in laws that affect their school district. Orlando enumerates several other varieties of lock-out, while warning against the negative consequences of such communication blockages.

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84 **Pascale, Richard Tanner.** "Zen and the Art of Management." *Harvard Business Review,* 56, 2 (March/April 1978), pp. 153-62. EJ 173 606.

"Successful managers, *regardless of nationality,* share certain

32 common characteristics that are related to subtleties of the communications process." This is perhaps the most significant finding of Pascale's study of Japanese companies, which he conducted to determine the ways in which the companies' communications and decision-making processes contributed to their high performance. In this article, Pascale describes several of the subtle communication techniques employed by successful managers in both Japan and the United States—techniques collectively referred to as the "art of management."

One such technique is the use of ambiguity as a management tool; instead of pushing for premature solutions to complex problems, a successful manager sometimes permits the situations to remain ambiguous until they "take clearer shape or reach an accommodation of their own." This Pascale contrasts with the manager who prematurely makes a decision in a still ambiguous situation, which "freezes" the natural evolution of the situation. There are of course times when "being explicit and decisive is not only helpful but necessary"; however, there is a greater advantage in having a "dual frame of reference."

Ambiguity can also have value when criticizing a subordinate's work. The skilled manager carefully constructs his or her message, coming "close enough to the point to ensure that the subordinate gets the message but not so close as to 'crowd' him and cause defensiveness." This approach, states Pascale, allows the worker to retain his pride, while avoiding the alienation that often accompanies confrontation.

Pascale also discusses the value of "implied recognition" as a powerful incentive for workers. Seeking another's opinion, for example, tacitly "communicates recognition and respect for his insight. So does an invitation to participate in a significant meeting from which the person might otherwise have been excluded."

The successful manager, says Pascale, sees himself not only as an accomplisher of certain organizational tasks, but also as "an essential intermediary in the social fabric." He values a worker for his uniqueness and humanness in addition to valuing him for the function he performs; that is, the manager is attentive to both the "man" and the "bottom line." Pascale illustrates many of his concepts in this interesting article by contrasting Eastern and Western modes of thinking.

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85 **Patterson, Walter G.** "To the Principal: Are You There?" *NASSP Bulletin*, 61, 407 (March 1977), pp. 104-6. EJ 160 412.

Leaders should operate within an "open door policy," providing frequent and regular opportunities for access. An available and visible leader provides psychological assurance that the leader "is there" should problems arise. This ultimately enhances the leader's effectiveness.

Patterson offers school administrators several suggestions for increasing availability. A principal can remain in the outer office at the opening and closing of school so students and teachers may see and talk with him or her. A superintendent might spend an occasional lunch hour in the faculty lunch room. A superintendent or principal can provide "open hours" in which any staff member, teacher, parent, or student may see him.

The author also provides several contemporary and historical examples supporting the idea that leadership is enhanced through the increased availability of the leader.

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86 **Pulley, Jerry L.** "The Principal and Communication: Some Points of Interference." *NASSP Bulletin*, 59, 387 (January 1975), pp. 50-54. EJ 110 352.

The "classic linear model" of communication has five components: source, message, medium, receiver, and reaction. Breakdowns in communication can occur at any of these points, says Pulley, and in a variety of ways. For example, the source, which is the individual or group with information to share, may be viewed by others in a wide variety of ways, thus inhibiting the accurate transmission of the message.

The way the message is constructed or encoded can also lead to misunderstanding. "Over-use of education jargon," for example, can easily lose a listener, while the use of "sensitive" words and phrases tends to alienate some audiences. To avoid the latter difficulty, Pulley recommends that terms such as "truant" and "lazy" be replaced by the euphemisms "absent without permission" and "can do more when he tries."

The medium is simply the delivery system for a message, whether it be conversation, electronic device, or printed matter. Errors at this stage are very common, so Pulley recommends that messages be sent through more than one channel whenever possible. Verbal conversation is by far the most effective means of communication, says Pulley, because "it allows for significant non-verbal communication" as well as direct feedback from the listener.

How a receiver interprets a message is another common source of interference. Often a receiver is biased toward the source, or a message is interpreted the way the receiver *wants* to interpret it. The attitudinal set of the receiver, then, should be an important consideration when constructing a message.

Pulley concludes by recommending that the principal build an awareness of the possible sources of communication error in his organization, so that he can design "a more effective communication system."

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87 **Redfern, George B.** "Managerial Communication: Three Keys to Effectiveness." Paper presented at the American Association of School Administrators annual meeting, Las Vegas, February 1977. 10 pages. ED 137 954.

Managerial communications, states Redfern, are not in good health. First of all, communications between principals and faculty are being strained due to the advent of teacher unions and collective bargaining. Collaboration is being replaced by union confrontation tactics and strategies, while "openness and trust have become casualties." There is also a growing alienation between building-level administrators and central office personnel; team management, says Redfern, has often failed, causing some middle

managers to form their own unions.

Communications between school and community are also strained, due in part to decreases in achievement by students, and in part to the emergence of parent and community pressure groups that are demanding a say in what children are taught. In addition, the increase in "investigative" reporting by the media has undermined the public's confidence in educational managers, because it has become stylish to think that there is always something hidden or corrupt.

Redfern offers several general suggestions for alleviating these communication breakdowns. For example, he recommends that school systems be structured to fulfill the psychological needs of their members. Some of these needs are a sense that management cares about workers' ideas, a sense that workers are having an impact on the organization, and a feeling that the organization has "integrity." Many of these needs, says Redfern, are not currently satisfied, resulting in alienation, cynicism, and decreased confidence.

School systems can take a step toward meeting some of these needs, states Redfern, by increasing the "upward flow of information." Presently, if an idea or suggestion is to survive on the way "up," every administrator on the way must say "yes." When ideas are blocked, however, individuals "conclude that the organization and its managers do not care what they think. This turns them off. Cynicism results."

Redfern also suggests several attitudinal changes that can help open up communication channels. For example, "power" should be reconceptualized as being a shared resource as opposed to something that only management holds and uses on employees. The latter view provokes workers to acquire power by forming unions.

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88 "Research Interpersonal Relations: How to Say Goodbye." *Nation's Schools and Colleges*, 1, 2 (October 1974), pp. 54-56. EJ 105 881.

How do you end a conversation? According to the findings of a research team at Purdue University, most people don't just shake hands and say "goodbye." Instead, they end the conversation with words of reinforcement and agreement, such as "yeah," "right," "sure," or "okay." It seems that "most people instinctively understand that agreement is the 'proper' way to end a conversation."

Even stronger ways to signal the end of a conversation, however, are nonverbal clues. The first sign is often a forward lean, followed by a break in eye contact. But, "the surest clue that a conversation is over is what the researchers call 'left positioning'—the leave-taker actually points his legs or feet toward the door."

Leave-taking can be a fairly complex ritual of verbal and nonverbal clues—approaching a "veritable song and dance." Since misunderstandings of the signals often occur, it behooves the administrator to build a good understanding of this complex and subtle behavior.

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89 **Rogus, Joseph,** and **Matczynski, Thomas.** "Principal-Central Office Communication." *NASSP Bulletin*, 61, 405 (January 1977), pp. 37-43. EJ 158 815.

The traditional, hierarchical model of school-system organization may be responsible for communication problems within the system. Rogus and Matczynski believe that this type of organization does not satisfy members' "higher needs," needs that are satisfied by shared decision-making and involvement in the development of the organization. If satisfaction at this "motivation level" is not achieved, workers are likely to express frustration at lower levels by organizing and demanding job security, fringe benefits, and other tangibles. On the other hand, satisfaction of these higher needs "has been shown to relate significantly to improved employee performance."

Part of the trouble with the hierarchical system is its pyramidal structure, with different levels connoting superior-inferior relationships. Another problem is the "rule" of the hierarchical game that problems are "symptoms of weakness and weak people never move up the pyramid." The result of these problems is the "isolated principal"—inhibited in vertical communications with the central office and in horizontal communications with his peers.

As one means of implementing change in this kind of system, the authors encourage adoption of team management concepts. Team meetings would provide opportunities for greater communication

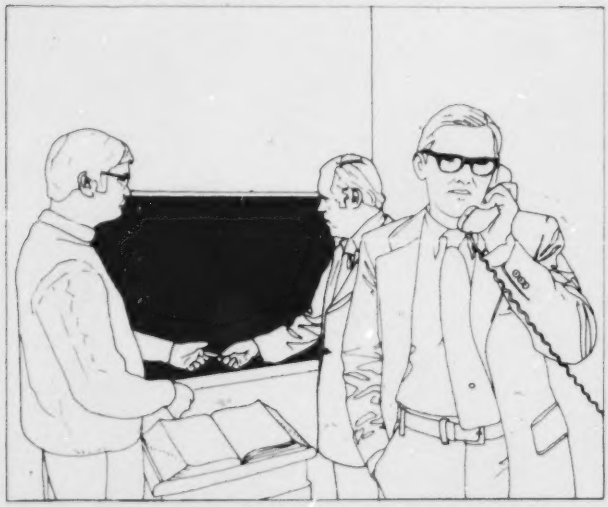
between the central office and principals, while the inclusion of principals in decision-making would engender feelings of belonging and contributing to the organization.

The authors also suggest that principals meet together regularly in support groups of eight to ten to identify and discuss problems in an attempt to relieve horizontal isolation. Most important, however, is their recommendation that everyone in the school hierarchy make a conscious effort to change the attitudinal sets that hold the hierarchy intact.

90

Schott, James L. "The Practitioner's Guide to Research Communications: The Principal and Students." *NASSP Bulletin*, 57, 377 (December 1973), pp. 86-90. EJ 090 447.

The principal should be fully aware of the factors that influence the quality of his or her communication with students. Schott here describes a study of the relationships between a number of student attributes and the quality of communication between student and principal as perceived by the students.



A Purdue University researcher conducted the study in a large urban high school with a wide range of social status levels and a black population of 11 percent. The attributes under investigation were race, grade index, curriculum, sex, activities index, and social status. A thirty-item questionnaire was used to measure student perceptions of three communication dimensions: the climate for student-principal communications, the opportunity for communication input, and how well students were kept informed.

Not surprisingly, the study revealed that white students, female students, and students with a high involvement in activities all perceived better communications in all categories than did their counterparts.

The findings concerning the effects of the students' social status were particularly interesting. As might be expected, students lowest on the social position scale were less satisfied with all three communication dimensions. High social status students, however, while considering the communications climate better than any other student social class, also perceived a very low opportunity for input, while middle-class students perceived the highest opportunity.

The most interesting finding was that most students perceived their opportunity for input as far better than either the general climate for communications or their level of being informed. This finding, suggests Schott, "might reflect a general attitude of student skepticism relative to the actual impact they might have upon their school life."

One of the key implications of this study, says Schott, is "the need for each principal to assess the status of principal-student communications within his building." Being aware of the variables in the communications process is a first step toward understanding students and their perceptions.

91

Taylor, Richard L. *The Communication Structure of a Large Urban Secondary School.* 1971. 22 pages. ED 123 810.

Taylor describes a method he used to determine the communication characteristics of Rainier Beach High School in Seattle, Washington, where he is principal. He then discusses the general applicability of this method to other organizations.

The method Taylor used assumes that organizational structure can be characterized "in terms of communication events which connect pairs of individuals." When all these "units" of connection are determined, communication structure for the whole organization can be mapped and studied. Thus Taylor's main data-gathering tool was a simple questionnaire that was distributed to all staff, asking each to check off the frequency, subject matter, and importance of their contact with every other staff member over a given period of time.

The data so obtained were subjected to statistical analysis to determine the structure of the communications network, including the number and identity of "key communicators" and "isolates." Since the questionnaire was administered three times covering a two-year data period, changes in the quantity and subject matter of conversation could be detected, as well as changes in the network itself. For example, Taylor traced an increase in staff discussion about the school's participation in a model schools project to the response to workshops on the subject.

Taylor applied statistical methods developed by several organizational theorists. He describes these methods in some detail and provides a sample questionnaire. The costs of administering the questionnaire and analyzing the data, says Taylor, are nominal. He recommends use of the method whenever it is of value to know the communication structure of an organization.

92

Valentine, Jerry W.; Tate, Bradford L.; Seagren, Alan T.; and **Lammel, John A.** "Administrative Verbal Behavior: What You Say Does Make a Difference." *NASSP Bulletin*, 59, 395 (December 1975), pp. 67-74. EJ 135 571.

There is a significant relationship between what an administrator says and the "climate" or "tone" of the administrator's school. The authors here discuss the results of a study in which the specific verbal behaviors of high school principals were correlated with different perceptions of the school by teachers, parents, and students.

The study revealed that "each administrator was consistently 'direct' or 'indirect' in the verbal behaviors he utilized." Direct behavior includes direction-giving, emphasizing main points, statements of decision, and criticism, while indirect behavior refers to the expression and acceptance of feeling, opinions, and values and the use of humor.

Surprisingly, the study showed that "the more direct the principal, the more positive the attitudes of teachers, students, and parents" toward the school. For example, in schools where the principals were more direct, "the students perceived the schools as having an atmosphere where members of the organization assisted each other, provided useful services, and stressed group-centered social activities." At the same time, the principal's direct verbal behavior provoked feelings of constraint on personal development. In other words, direct verbal behavior stimulated perceptions of a group-centered, goal-oriented organization, but at the expense of perceptions of individual growth.

In contrast, indirect verbal behavior created an atmosphere of self-development, increased expression and acceptance of opinions and values by the principal stimulated perceptions of a flexible organization that cared about individuals. Concomitantly, students perceived the school as having "little emphasis on achievement, hard work, and commitment to the goals of the school."

The authors make no judgment as to which kind of verbal behavior is better, but leave it to the administrator to decide the kind of environment preferred for his or her organization and then adjust verbal behavior accordingly.

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93 **Zeigler, L. Harmon; Wilson, L. A. II;** and **Tucker, Harvey J.** "Administrative Representation." Eugene, Oregon: Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, 1976. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, San Francisco, March 1976. 21 pages. ED 132 675.

Ideally, the school board alone receives and acts on constituent requests. In reality, however, the superintendent and administrative staff also act as conduits for public requests. This is what the authors call "administrative representation."

In an earlier paper, the authors examined formal communications with the public (school board meetings) in eleven school districts. In this paper, they analyze the informal communications in three of these districts. They recorded, "in weekly sessions, all informal constituent communication with school board members, the superintendent, and (where possible or appropriate) the central office staff."

In all three districts, informal communication was dominated by individuals (unaffiliated individuals and parents) rather than groups (civic groups and special interest groups). In two of the three districts, individuals tended to be selective in their communication: parents took their concerns primarily to the superintendent or administration, while nonparents tended to communicate more with school boards.

In contrast to their findings on formal communications, the authors found that informal communications were largely composed of "demands" (requests for decisions) rather than simple requests for information. They point out the potential for administrative representation, or misrepresentation, by noting that in two of the three districts administrators received as many or more demands than did the board. Clearly, they state, "the superintendent is regarded as substantially more than a neutral administrator."

It was also found that most communications from constituents to superintendents and boards were supportive in nature, while administrative staffs took the brunt of dissent. In other words, constituents communicated most when they felt that the superintendent or board would be in agreement with their position.

The extent to which boards and administrators were persuaded by communications varied with the district and the administrator involved. Some superintendents considered themselves invulnerable to persuasion and acted nearly so. Others were much more responsive to persuasion. In all districts, supportive communications were more influential.

The authors include in this clearly written report seven tables to illustrate their findings.

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7 Community Schools

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94 **American Association of School Administrators.** *New Forms for Community Education.* Washington, D.C.: 1974. 92 pages. ED 093 038.

Although "community school" has, in the past, frequently been confused with "community education," the two are not synonymous. The community school is only one of the resources that the "comprehensive community service center" draws on. For example, the John F. Kennedy School and Community Center in Atlanta, Georgia, a large, multipurpose community education facility, houses not only a middle school but such community service agencies as the YWCA, the Social Security Administration, the employment office, and legal aid, to name only a few. Other community education centers are described in this book, complete with pictures and architectural plans.

The emphasis in this attractively designed volume is on facilities for community education. But its authors view facilities—buildings and grounds—as representative of the evolving community education concept, a concept that has increasingly expanded from the simple notion of public community school into the more complex notion of total community service. The modern community education facility "is a multiuse facility" that "serves a different array of functions in different communities."

The combination of the general and the specific in this volume makes it a valuable contribution to the literature on community schools and community education.

95 **Berridge, Robert I.; Stark, Stephen L.;** and **West, Philip T.** *Training the Community Educator: A Case-Study Approach.* Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing Company, 1977. 150 pages. ED 133 846.

"Before a grandiose plan can be wholeheartedly addressed, community educators must be equipped to resolve a myriad of contemporary problems." Berridge, Stark, and West have set out to advise their readers of some of these problems through a collection of twenty-four case studies based on ten years of combined field experiences.

The case studies cover eight topical areas: community awareness, planning and implementing, staffing, coordinating community efforts, developing policies and procedures, financing, exercising leadership, and reevaluation. Each case provides a fictionalized account of the kinds of interactions and responses that accompany efforts in all these areas. Questions and suggested "activities" at the end of each case are designed for use in training those concerned with the practical problems of all phases of community education.

For example, three cases in chapter 1, "Creating Community Awareness," trace the frustrations of a young teacher assigned by his superintendent to drum up support for community education among local citizens. Questions following the three cases engage the reader in an attempt to discover what the young teacher was doing right as well as what he was doing wrong at each stage of his approach. "Activities" include role playing the teacher in a variety of related situations.

An extensive list of suggested annotated readings provides additional sources for students and practitioners of community education in each of the eight topical areas.

96 ["Community Education."] Manhattan: College of Education, Kansas State University. *Educational Considerations*, 2, 2 (Winter 1974), entire issue. 20 pages. ED 105 548.

The six articles of this special issue provide an overview of the philosophy and history of community education, as well as some views regarding its future. Jack Minzey's article, "Community Education: Where We've Been, Where We're Going," examines the evolution of the community education concept and notes an important distinction of the 1970 version from those of the 1940s and 50s. In the 1970s, Minzey writes, "instead of being an 'add on' program, it is the conceptual base for which schools exist." As a result, schools are more committed to their responsibilities in the community, rather than just tolerant of old community education programs.

Minzey remarks that while some educators feel dismayed and even threatened by the rise of community education, its impact has been very impressive. Statistics show that over seven hundred communities now have community education programs, sixty-one universities have community education centers, and six states have begun to offer legislative support for community education development.

Two articles examine the implications of the 1974 federal legislation that granted financial support to community education on the national level. Leroy Watt looks into the appeal of community education and the reasons the concept is gaining national acceptance, while Clyde LeTarte regards the new federal funding as a mixed blessing. LeTarte cites the necessity for guaranteeing that the quantity and quality of newly trained community educators be carefully balanced and that the principles of community education not be misapplied in a rush toward implementation of community education programs across the nation.

Other articles look at community apathy and assessment of community education programs.

97 "Community Education: Exploring the Concept, Its Potential as Panacea." *NASSP Bulletin*, 59, 394 (November 1975), entire issue.

This useful issue includes eleven articles by authorities on community education, covering many topics from the need for a conceptual framework to practical applications of a community education program. The articles concerned with the more theoretical aspects of community education provide a worthwhile introduction to its principles and goals. For those already familiar with the concept of community education, the most useful articles are likely to be those reviewing various aspects and models of already existing community education programs, their successes and failures.

An article on "Administrative Alternatives" provides three case studies of existing programs. The first two explore "various cooperative arrangements mutually beneficial to several agencies" in which the public school is the administering agency, while the third case study explores the pros and cons of having nonprofit organizations administer the program. An article on the evening portion of the community school offers helpful suggestions for the implementation of programs in four areas: social services, cognitive skills, technical skills, and leisure-time services.

Other articles discuss the need for increased interaction between school and community, the role of principals and community coordinators in bringing about that interaction, and potential short- and long-term benefits (for example, decline in vandalism, reduction of the number of dropouts) to be gained from a comprehensive community education program. A "Feature" section at the end of this issue includes reviews of two books on community education.

98 **Ellis, Peter,** and **Sperling, John.** "The Role of Community School Director as Organizer." *Community Education Journal*, 3, 1 (January 1973), pp. 55-56, 61. EJ 070 334.

"The most important of many tasks of the Community School Director is to organize the various constituencies in his community." Ellis and Sperling see organization as the means of reintegrating often disillusioned and alienated people back into the structure of the community. The key to this reintegration is *power*, which can be, according to these authors, "a humanizing force."

The community school director, through his organizing abilities, can channel the energy of community members into the constructive exercise of power—"an aspect of human potential," not "a social force which has a finite quality." Their assertion that "lack of power corrupts and absolute lack of power corrupts absolutely" offers an interesting context in which to view the role of the community school director.

99 **Hiemstra, Roger.** *The Educative Community. Linking the Community, School, and Family. The Professional Education Series.* Lincoln, Nebraska: Professional Educators Publications, Inc., 1972. 116 pages. ED 078 575.

According to Hiemstra, the schools are simply one component of the entire community—one of "those social units performing societal functions" that, when combined, "serve the needs of a given public." Therefore, this author argues, "the school can no longer afford to remain autonomous or separate from other community institutions, many of which also have educational functions."

The concerted efforts of all community institutions lead to the realization of the "educative community" in which education is central and integrated into all facets of life—including decision-making. Hiemstra argues for decentralized educational decision-making, which demands that the educational structure of the

community (not just its schools) serve the interests and needs of community members, rather than fulfill "some general set of requirements established at a centralized level."

The community school is, of course, an important element in creating the educative community. Its "ultimate goal," according to Hiemstra, is "to influence the community toward constructive change by assisting community residents to solve various problems basic to community living."

The striking thing about Hiemstra's argument is its emphasis on decentralization—an emphasis he makes explicit, unlike some proponents of community education. The basic unit for problem-solving and for curing societal ills is the community, not the state or the nation. And community education is the means of accomplishing these goals, according to Hiemstra.

100 **Kerensky, Vasil M.,** and **Melby, Ernest O.** *Education II—The Social Imperative.* Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing Company, 1971. 191 pages. ED 069 834.

The philosophical assumptions and attitudes underlying the community education movement are articulately presented in this examination of the failure of American education. Kerensky and Melby assume, like all community education advocates, that education is the solution to social disintegration. Although they share this belief with more traditional educators, they believe that the solutions education has to offer can be achieved only if the concept of education is expanded. A child's education hardly ceases when he leaves the school building; it is continued throughout his life in the community. Therefore, the community must be completely involved in education, they argue.

Kerensky and Melby maintain that "we are entering a new phase in the history of the human condition," which they call "Mankind II." To meet the demands for "new qualities and characteristics," it is imperative that a "learning society" evolve from the "education-centered community."

In order to educate all children, even those previously considered "disadvantaged" or "uneducable," schools must be freed from the bureaucratic constraints of central control and allowed to directly serve their communities. Only then can education impart to community members a sense of their own value and well-being, qualities that Kerensky and Melby consider essential for a "learning society."

These two authors are, judging from their book, confirmed optimists. They believe that, while the achievement of "the American dream" is currently an impossibility for many children, it can become a reality, just as true community education, the means of achieving the "dream," can become a reality.

101 **McCloskey, Gordon.** *Year-Round Community Schools: A Framework for Administrative Leadership.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, [1973]. 63 pages. ED 079 838.

Pointing out that the idea of making full use of community educational resources all year round is not new, McCloskey notes that this combination of the community education concept and the year-round school concept is more relevant now in view of "our present-day need for using all available resources." These two concepts together can provide not only the more economically efficient utilization of resources such as facilities, but the fuller realization of human potential within the community as well.

McCloskey presents some of the major year-round school "patterns" and shows how these patterns may be incorporated into the community school. He also defines and analyzes some of the major administrative tasks involved in planning and implementing a year-round community school.

102 **Molloy, Larry.** *Community/School: Sharing the Space and the Action. A Report.* New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 1973. 98 pages. ED 084 643.

In his examination of the role of shared facilities in community education, Molloy draws a distinction between the community school and "community/school." In the latter "the entire building is operated for the benefit of people of all ages in the community and is paid for and operated by educational and other public service agencies." In other words, the distinction between the community and the school is dissolved under Molloy's definition.

This union of school and community can, according to Molloy, "make significant differences in the economy and productivity of local services" of all kinds. On this concept he bases his analysis of the planning, administration, architecture, and legal aspects of community/schools.

Molloy's book is well written and interestingly illustrated.

103 **Passantino, Richard J.** "Community/School Facilities: The Schoolhouse of the Future." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 56, 5 (January 1975), pp. 306-9. EJ 109 237.

Observing that "past civilizations educated their youth within the community-at-large in non-specialized environments," Passantino examines the progress of the community education movement toward eliminating the isolation of education from the community.

He briefly chronicles the movement from 1935 to the present, identifying three generations of the community school principle. His examples include such projects as the Williams Community Center in Flint, Michigan, the Whitmer Center in Pontiac, Michigan, and the J. F. Kennedy School and Community Center in Atlanta, Georgia. These projects demonstrate Passantino's premise that education is on its way to becoming increasingly integrated into the life of the community, from the earlier involvement with recreation and the arts to more recent involvement in health and social services. The Whitmer Center, an example of the third generation of community schools, comprises "a pattern of spaces under one roof" that deals with "social and medical support services as well as educational and recreational services."

Following his look at the past, Passantino speculates on what the next generation of community schools will be like. Examples range from a proposed community school in Jarva, Sweden, where "school planning is conceptually woven into housing, recreation, and social patterns" to the Roosevelt Island Development in New York's East River. Of these most recently planned projects Passantino writes: "our isolated approaches to problem solving have cut deeply into the quality of our life-style, and such adventures into total comprehensive design rather than our present nuclear planning patterns must become our norm."

Passantino's lucid and interesting text combines with useful diagrams and drawings of the Williams, Whitmer, and Kennedy community school centers.

104 **Ringers, Joseph, Jr.** "The Economics of Community/Schools." *American School & University*, 49, 6 (April 1977), pp. 60, 62, 64. EJ 157 034.

Ringers addresses himself principally to alternative uses of surplus school space created by current trends toward declining and shifting enrollment. Since "space users tend to expand into every available inch," the first step, Ringers says, is to determine what space is available. Once potential space has been identified, civic groups, school staff, and patrons of the community should be informed of its availability. The proposed alternative use of space, if acceptable, may then require a permit from the zoning board. Should alterations be necessary to convert school space into other useful community purposes, federal aid from HUD's Community Development Grants may be obtained.

One essential element of the successful use of space is sharing. Many schools have kitchens as well equipped as restaurants, yet these facilities are often used only for the preparation of five meals a week. Ringers suggests that the community would be better served if these kitchen facilities were utilized more fully, for example, to provide meals for the elderly. "If the seniors dine at school, they may stay to provide voluntary services to the school program."

School buses and other school facilities might be utilized on a similar basis. Ringers notes that rental of school space can bring increased revenue and support from a broader base of the community. Means of generating revenue include permission for adults to enroll in underenrolled classes and cooperation with community colleges to eliminate duplication of course offerings.

Program grants are currently available through centers for community education development in forty-six of fifty states and through the federal Community Schools Act. Ringers observes that making the best possible use of available space requires the time and energy of a dedicated person, either "an existing manager who expands his/her responsibilities, or a person trained and employed as a community director . . . to find new sources of funds and other support for the programs involved."

105 **Robbins, Wayne R.,** and **Whitaker, Donald.** *A Guide for Community School Advisory Councils.* San Diego, California: Center for Community Education, San Diego County Department of Education, 1975. 94 pages. ED 106 926.

The role of an advisory council in a community school is to serve the director as "advisors, not operators . . . idea givers, not policy makers; new direction givers, not necessarily backers of the status quo."

Robbins and Whitaker have designed their guide specifically for the practical problems of community school directors and advisory council members " as they work together to develop a community school." They offer practical advice for the building of a working relationship, including exercises devoted to the role of the community director, planning and promotion of programs, recruitment and certification of staff, and role identification of director and council.

Robbins and Whitaker recommend a step-by-step procedure for implementation of the community school and give suggestions for maintaining interest among advisory council members once the program has begun. Supplemental information includes a brief philosophical statement asserting a rather modest conception of community education and an annotated bibliography of books, materials, monographs, and films available through the San Diego County Center for Community Education.

Community schools are envisioned as "an integral part of community life . . . the institution through which people can most effectively solve identified community problems, including, but not limited to, the problem of providing effective K-12 instruction." Appendixes provide, among other items, samples of a job description for a community school director and a director of community education, as well as proposed advisory council bylaws and a model set of goals and objectives for a community school.

106 **Schofield, Dee.** *Community Schools. NAESP School Leadership Digest Series, Number Four. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number Six.* Washington, D.C.; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 48 pages. ED 094 447.

The gap that exists between what goes on in the schools and the world outside remains the central philosophical and practical problem facing education today. Unification of "school" and "outside" can be accomplished, according to Schofield, through a good community education program.

Education should be available to *all* members of society regardless of age, social position, or educational background. In fact the educational system and the community as a whole should exist to promote continuing education and improvement in the quality of people's lives.

Community education as the concept and community schools as the vehicle can put this all into practice.

"The community education ideal has, perhaps, come closest to realization in the area of facilities," Schofield notes. Since surplus space costs money, the shared use of existing buildings and construction of large, multipurpose centers pay off in the long run.

Financing should be based on the traditional sources: taxation, tuition and fees, fines and forfeitures, and gifts, with federal support playing a minor role. Local funding through contributions and use of volunteers promote greater community involvement, one of the main purposes of community education.

Decentralization of decision-making, according to Schofield, will integrate more people into the administrative process. The role of the community school coordinator then becomes one of transforming innovative theory into concrete practice. The coordinator must be more in touch with the immediate community than many school administrators presently are.

Besides the coordinator and a competent staff, an advisory council is "absolutely essential" to successful implementation of the community education concept.

The program of the community school depends on the needs and desires of the individual community. Each community must work out its own curriculum and strive to meet people's basic life needs.

Since these needs affect all people at all times, the gap between what transpires in the schools and the outside world will be closed.

107 **Seay, Maurice F.,** and others. *Community Education: A Developing Concept.* 1974. 424 pages. ED 095 612.

"Community education is the process that achieves a balance and a use of all institutional forces in the education of the people—all of the people—of the community," according to Seay, a longtime proponent of community education. He acknowledges that "because of its all-inclusive nature," community education is difficult to define. But he argues that it must be considered a more complex, comprehensive concept than the community school, which is frequently just an extension of already-existing public school programs.

This volume is intended to show just how comprehensive Seay's vision of community education is. Chapters deal with the institutions and agencies that can contribute to community education (including almost every kind of social organization from YMCA to the U.S. Army, according to Seay), leadership and leadership training in community education, accountability and evaluation, public communication, counseling and special education, and the roles of community colleges and universities in community education. A bibliography of other sources is also included.

To accomplish the coordination of "all institutional forces" for community education, Seay states that a plan must be followed by an organization with the authority to "promote comprehensive programs of education." This organization is to derive its power "directly from the people of the entire community," which Seay defines as a local geographic area. Although he does not use the terms "political power" or "local control," he seems to implicitly endorse these concepts as the means of achieving true community education.

108 **Stufflebeam, Daniel L.** "Evaluation as a Community Education Process." *Community Education Journal,* 5, 2 (March/April 1975), pp. 7-12, 19. EJ 112 448.

"Community education suffers from a lack of independent, dependable feedback; and communities may not be benefiting as much as they should be from their investments" in it, according to Stufflebeam. This expert on educational evaluation asserts that any community education program "absolutely requires a well-functioning *formalized evaluation system*" that provides "a detached and independent perspective" and a thorough technology that yields reliable data.

Formal evaluation is necessary to provide information for decision-making and accountability. Stufflebeam recommends the use of both formative evaluation, which provides information to

decision-makers *before* they make decisions, and summative evaluation, which tells consumers as well as taxpayers how well a program has worked.

Stufflebeam outlines what he calls "a sound conceptual framework" for community education evaluation. His framework provides a definition of evaluation (it is the act of determining "merit"), the objects of evaluation, its uses, the specific variables to be evaluated, the data-gathering process, who should evaluate the community education program (both insiders and outsiders), and how the evaluation itself should be judged.

This article is the best of twenty articles on community education evaluation in the March-April 1975 issue of the *Community Education Journal*.

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109 **Weischadle, David E.** "Planning for Community Education." Paper presented at Community Education Institute, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, June 1974. 10 pages. ED 098 712.

If community education is to be truly community-oriented, then the schools must involve the community "in setting goals, designing programs, and conducting these programs," according to Weischadle.

This author conceives of the community education planning process as a system—"a set of inter-related steps that are sequential and unifying." This planning system must also be cyclical, flexible, and keyed to fluctuations in budget. Members of the community should be involved in all stages of planning, which include assessment, goal setting, program design, budget development, and implementation.

To begin the planning process, Weischadle suggests that a study *of* the community conducted *by* the community can yield the necessary data for assessment. The community should also be included in the goal setting and program design stages in order to "gain support and consensus." However, he cautions that these strategies should not be used "frivolously for public relations." The decisions made by the community must be backed up by "a firm public commitment to act upon goal development" by school leaders and administrators.

He also cautions against allowing community expectations to soar unrealistically to the point "where the community believes every suggestion will be funded." The public must be apprised of limited financial resources, a goal that can be accomplished by involving community members in budget development. Finally the community must be included in the ongoing implementation of the programs it helps to create.

Weischadle asserts that the community can be trusted to make sound decisions regarding its own educational programs. Such trust is necessary if community education is to work.

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110 **Wood, Erica F.** "An Identification and Analysis of the Legal Environment for Community Education." *Journal of Law and Education*, 3, 1 (January 1974), pp. 1-31. EJ 092 626.

According to this excellent analysis, the law alone cannot create community education. But it does provide one of the frameworks in which community education proponents must work.

Wood states that "the points of contact between the legal world and the emergent world of community education have been both positive and negative." On the positive side, state legislation encouraging the creation of community schools has been passed in at least eleven states, and judicial rulings on the use of school property for community education purposes have "generally been liberal." On the negative side, most state constitutions and codes still define "school" and "student" in very narrow terms, making it difficult for community education advocates to expand educational services for adults, for example. Wood also points out that community education is frequently regarded (in the law) as "an add-on" program—"an extra frill rather than as a fundamental redefinition of education."

Wood analyzes the legal bases for financial support of community education programs (including the somewhat "uncoordinated" sources of federal funding), citizen participation in community education (including decentralization and community control), intralocal cooperation (which necessitates the power to contract), and racial integration and community education.

She concludes that community education "possesses the potential for creating a whole new dimension of public education law, one which will bind the school closer to the community."

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8 Competency-Based Education

111 **Acheson, Keith A.** "Developing Competency-Based Graduation Requirements: Tips and Guidelines for School Districts." *Thrust for Educational Leadership,* 5, 2 (November 1975), pp. 10-12. EJ 137 181.

Acheson draws on his experience as a consultant to several California and Oregon districts to provide practical guidelines for the development of competency-based graduation requirements. His advice is suggestive and specific, but it is somewhat dated, appearing before some crucial problems of competency-based education (CBE) development were realized in experience. Educators should read him in the context of later analyses of CBE development.

In part, Acheson recommends a committee of representative district staff as the best means of identifying new graduation competencies. It may not be the most efficient means, he notes, but genuine staff involvement is crucial to program acceptance and success. If the committee is a large one, it can be divided into smaller ones organized around specific subject areas. Representatives from different subject areas can help the committees maintain their perspective as they identify competencies.

Philosophical debates may sidetrack committee work. Experienced leadership will need to demonstrate procedures that can accomplish the task and keep members working at a practical level. Leaders will also need to provide variety and feedback to keep members stimulated.

One helpful suggestion governs the writing of competency statements. Beginning with a proposed idea, he writes, each committee member should develop a working statement of the competency. The committee should then pool the different efforts and seek agreement on a single clear statement that synthesizes all versions. Only after it determines the wording of the competency should it decide to accept, change, or reject it. The group should find that clearly worded and commonly understood statements will ease decision-making.

The new competencies, Acheson concludes, will need to be linked to instruction. The assignment of instructional responsibility for the competencies may reshape curriculum organization and departmental structure as it suggests new courses and learning opportunities.

112 **Bowers, C. A.** "Emergent Ideological Characteristics of Educational Policy." *Teachers College Record,* 79, 1 (September 1977), pp. 33-54. EJ 170 713.

Much of the most telling criticism of CBE comes from educators outside the realm of CBE and its practical concerns. Rather than pragmatically considering the specific problems of CBE implementation and practice, it instead digs deeper and questions the fundamental assumptions upon which CBE rests. A good example of such criticism is Bowers' analysis of our emergent technocratic ideology, which informs and shapes our everyday vision of reality, and this ideology's corruptive presence in CBE and two other educational reforms. His work is difficult and technical,

but it provides a demystifying insight into what we are apt to accept as given and natural.

According to Bowers, our technocratic ideology or world view, rooted in Comtian logical positivism, integrates science, technology, and bureaucracy. It structures our consciousness to view reality in terms of mechanical production, quantifiable measurement, and technological problem-solving, which considers only expertise and means and denies issues of values. This thinking deceptively restricts our consciousness with political results: it grants present values the status of objectivity and produces a passive acceptance of the present socioeconomic order.

Bowers examines the language of behavior modification, career education, and CBE and demonstrates how each carries the technocratic ideology and socializes students into its mold. CBE, for Bowers, is the ideology's most complete expression. It threatens to transform teaching and learning into a mechanical process and create "an encapsulated technological universe where only technological and management problems are real." It has no recognition of "the individual who experiences existence as problematic" and instead reduces the individual to "product" and "output." The individual becomes merely a component of the system and his experiences components to be measured in a search for greater system efficiency.

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113 **Gardner, Leonard.** "Humanistic Education and Behavioral Objectives: Opposing Theories of Educational Science." *School Review,* 85, 3 (May 1977), pp. 376-94. EJ 163 660.

In a rigorous and eloquent essay, Gardner analyzes the behaviorist tradition that has come to dominate the theory and practice of American education and that appears most forcibly today as CBE. He proceeds by a close comparison and contrast of two works representative of the behaviorist tradition and its humanistic challenge, Mager's *Preparing Instructional Objectives* and Kohl's *36 Children.* In the process, he unmasks the assumptions and implications of the former and reveals that the latter has just as much claim to scientific methodology. His essay serves as a valuable complement to and illustration of Bowers's analysis of technocratic ideology.

Mager's work, Gardner demonstrates, presents an impersonal and managerial approach to education. Its conception of feedback, emphasis on performance objectives, and method of decomposition serve to lock the learner into "a defined, determinate, preconstructed environment—the world of the program—in which his choices are severely limited." Its method also radically separates methods of instruction and learning content.

Kohl's work, in contrast, reveals a personal approach that embodies discovery rather than the preconceived and limited order of the programmer. As Gardner describes Kohl's "problematic method," Kohl accepts an initial indeterminate chaos and, attentive to his students' needs, strives for a defining principle that can create order and unity. What he discovers is the "necessarily experiential character of ideas and education," according to which ideas become meaningful in their relation to one's experience of living. This principle integrates both the ends and means of instruction.

Mager's theory provides a mechanical vision that transforms individuals into standardized entities; Kohl's theory provides a vital vision that responds to the individual's uniqueness. Both theories, however, employ systematic methods. They differ not in their possession of scientific methodology, but in their "radically different conceptions of science and method."

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114 **Gentry, Castelle G.** "Will the Real Advantage of CBE Please Stand Up?" *Educational Technology,* 16, 10 (October 1976), pp. 13-15. EJ 148 463.

Gentry highlights a claim that informs most discussions of CBE: its clarity or rationality. For Gentry, "the really significant contribution of CBE is its potential for rendering our murky instructional processes *visible.*" It provides "a framework in which teaching strategies and other components of an instructional system can be objectively compared, *by all those affected.*"

Traditional means of identifying learning goals and measuring their achievement, Gentry argues, cannot help but create ambiguity, as they depend heavily on intuitive judgment and what he terms secondary criteria, such as normative grading and matters of attendance. But CBE, in marked contrast, calls for precise objectives, preset levels of mastery, and criterion-referenced assessment and makes known in advance the criteria for each. Its explicitness makes for a difference in precision, a "difference between 'appearing' to accomplish a desired learning outcome and 'evidentially' accomplishing it."

The precision of CBE, Gentry concludes, rationalizes not only the instructional process, but also the whole of education. It opens up a relatively closed system with clear evidence of program needs and achievement. And in so doing, "it makes *individual* and *group accountability* for student learning a practical possibility."

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115 **Glick, I. David; Henning, Mary Jo;** and **Johnson, James R.** "CBE: How to Prevent a Second Orthodoxy." *Educational Technology,* 15, 8 (August 1975), pp. 17-20. EJ 123 016.

In the past few years, Glick and his colleagues declare, CBE "has assumed the characteristics of a movement." This movement proposes an alternative to the traditional curriculum where content is selected by the teacher, where all students learn the key facts and concepts in the same time frame, where evaluation of all students is norm-referenced, and where teaching is applied in a uniform manner to all students. By contrast, in a CBE curriculum content is sequenced in terms of competencies to be mastered, objectives are stated in performance terms, evaluation is criterion-referenced, and teaching varies according to the needs of the students. In short, CBE "promises to restructure the educational process."

To prevent competency-based education from becoming entrenched like previous educational orthodoxies, Glick proposes a model for a schoolwide or districtwide review board. These boards

would be composed of teachers who would regularly review programs for their effectiveness, make CB policy, share information with other schools or districts, and coordinate programs. CBE, by its very nature, provides many opportunities for internal and external evaluation, says Glick. In fact, perhaps its greatest virtue as a curriculum "is this builtin potential of self-correction through feedback."

116

Heath, Robert W., and **Nielson, Mark A.** "The Research Basis for Performance-Based Teacher Education." *Review of Educational Research,* 44, 4 (Fall 1974), pp. 463-84. EJ 114 985.

The theories of performance-based education include more than the structure of the curriculum. The concept of behavioral objectives is being applied to every area of educational concern, from training building management and district personnel to the stating of objectives for teacher education.

In teacher education especially, much research has sought to determine if there is a correlation between specific teacher skills and student achievement. After analyzing the research that forms much of the basis for validating performance-based teacher education, Heath and Nielson conclude that "the research on the relation between specific teacher skills and student achievement fails to reveal an empirical basis for performance-based teacher education."

Heath and Nielson's conclusions have a greater applicability than simply to teacher education. For one thing, the research did not differentiate teaching by content, but assumed there was *one* best method to teach all content. For another, the research ignored *who* was being taught. It may not be possible to prescribe a best method for the classroom at all, since it is impossible to "reveal differences in growth attributable to the administrative (teaching) variables." Likely to be of greater importance in student learning are social and economic factors of a student's homelife, factors that designers of competency-based programs in high schools cannot ignore.

117

Lasser, Barbara R., and **Olson, Allan L.** *Strategies for Implementation of Competency Based Education Programs.* Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1977. 146 pages. ED 147 950.

In this thorough and difficult study, Lasser and Olson draw from the full literature of educational innovation to analyze the issues and problems of CBE implementation. The two view the implementation process as a continuum. It begins with the orientation of potential users and proceeds to the decision to adopt a program. It next demands procedures for planning specific program characteristics and reconciling the new program with prevailing organizational structures. It concludes with monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of program implementation.

Their analysis of the major phases of implementation and the many considerations these entail can be quite abstract and general, but it can also be detailed and rich in suggestion.

In their discussion of inservice, for instance, the authors emerge from a review of the literature with several recommendations. Any inservice program, they note in part, should be based on the assessment of specific and current staff needs, and staff will clearly need new skills and knowledge as they begin the work of implementation. Inservice should initially be intensive and provide demonstration models, actual practice, and support as it makes use of a variety of training approaches. Regular ongoing inservice can enable schools to give developing problems immediate attention before they become serious. The authors favor inservice that emphasizes the creation of usable classroom materials. They also discuss an inservice model that adopts some of the characteristics of CBE.

This work forms one of an invaluable series of studies produced by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Together these well-researched and thoughtful publications present a comprehensive analysis of CBE in all its aspects.

118

Loser, Ronald. *Thoughts on Behavioral Objectives.* 1974. 6 pages. ED 100 841.

As a mathematician, Loser argues against the basic propositions of behavioral education that assert that unless a measurable change takes place the student has not learned, and that learning will be improved if course "goals are delineated on a day by day basis so that both instructor and student know precisely what is expected of them." Such a theory amounts to dogma, Loser argues, and like any dogma it truncates learning. One cannot behaviorally measure qualities like understanding, enthusiasm, curiosity, appreciation, motivation, or commitment.

The result of behavioral education is that important concepts and ideas are reduced to trivialities because trivialities are most easily measured. Loser wonders if behavioral objectives can be written for any intellectual activities like art, creative writing, math, or any area requiring assimilation of abstract ideas, broad concepts, cohesion of seemingly disjointed concepts, sensitivity and insight, technique, and new forms of expression.

Loser chides the behaviorists for failing to realize that goals are almost never completely realized, that "life is in the striving." While many skills can be taught by behavioral objectives, Loser argues that many cannot, and that it is possible to pursue short-term goals to the detriment of one's long-term welfare.

119

National School Public Relations Association. *The Competency Challenge: What Schools Are Doing.* Arlington, Virginia: 1978. 96 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

The poor performance of high school graduates has alarmed the nation and called up reaction. The competency movement, shaped in part by this reaction, comprises three distinct approaches to the problem, this *Education U.S.A. Special Report* points out. These approaches are back to basics, minimal competency testing, and competency-based education. Although they overlap, each seeks a different path to a different end.

Attempting to clarify the varied issues of the movement for an audience of practitioners, this report gives an overview of its manifestations, discusses the problems of competency testing, examines numerous district programs, and reviews its current trends and implications. The report's journalistic approach sacrifices analysis and synthesis for readability, but it nonetheless provides a suggestive and abundantly detailed introduction to the issues and practices of the competency movement.

Among the many issues discussed is that of cultural bias in testing. As many minority spokesmen argue, competency tests, like many standardized tests, are weighted in favor of the experience of middle-class children. One authority cited recommends that districts use experts to screen newly devised tests for cultural relevance and language validity and initially pilot test them on a group of children. Items missed by a large number should be carefully examined for test bias. As a general rule, he adds, educators should hold not only the children, but also the teachers and schools, accountable for achievement. If schools are to meet adequately the needs of their "atypical" children, he concludes, they will need to chart individual educational plans for each child. Another authority argues that districts should carefully question whether their test content reflects the experience of the community, corresponds to the curriculum, and accurately predicts adult success.

The report relates the experience of one district in which 8 percent of its white children and 56 percent of its minority children failed a survival skills competency test. Judging the test "culturally fair," the district formed a task force to find ways to improve minority student performance. It ultimately revised its curriculum and policies on curriculum materials, strengthened its attendance policies, and set up neighborhood resource centers staffed by community tutors.

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120 **Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.** *Alternative Methodologies for Competency Based Education: The State-of-the-Art.* Portland, Oregon: 1976. 158 pages. ED 147 948.

This paper reviews the present evolving state of the art of CBE methodology and discusses in depth alternative methods applicable to the development and practice of CBE programs. It systematically addresses the concerns of CBE's four main processes: outcome identification, instruction, assessment, and program management.

Although the work moves back and forth between theory and practice, its emphasis is on theoretical models that can organize practice. Developmental and learning theories receive special attention.

The discussion of instruction under CBE is typical of the paper's thoroughness. It first describes the basic properties of outcomes-based instruction. It then discusses seven basic activities and concerns of teachers under CBE: definition of measurable outcomes, diagnosis of individual needs, selection of teaching strategies, management of the learning environment, selection of assessment procedures, organization of instructional sequences, and evaluation of instruction. A full review of six models for outcomes-based instruction completes the discussion.

After synthesizing the best of available knowledge, the authors conclude that much development remains to be done. Despite widespread attention and advocacy, CBE is still immature. The rhetoric and theory of CBE far outstrip its practice, and CBE methodology presently has more gaps than substantive content.

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121 **Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.** *Competency Based Education Sourcebook.* 2d ed. Portland, Oregon: 1978. 560 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

The *Competency Based Education Sourcebook* is the single most valuable reference for serious inquiry into CBE practice. Serving as a guide for practitioners, it lists and evaluates resources applicable to the development and operation of CBE programs. It is comprehensive and it emphasizes utility.

For each of the four processes of CBE—outcome identification, instruction, assessment, and program management—it reviews four kinds of published and commercially available resources: references discussing CBE and its processes, problems, and potential; sources providing sample materials (such as competency lists) from which educators can select; products providing guidelines for selecting from available materials; and products providing guidelines for developing materials.

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122 **Pipho, Chris.** "Minimal Competency Testing in 1978: A Look at State Standards." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 59, 9 (May 1978), pp. 585-88. EJ 177 667.

In a recent assessment of state competency testing action, Pipho reports that the competency movement has finally arrived in all states. As of March 1978, thirty-three states have acted to mandate proficiency standards for the public schools. The remaining states have either legislation pending or state studies under way.

In addition to detailing state action, Pipho takes stock of the movement, discussing its changes and some emerging problems. He

46 sums up the activities of the past year by noting that the movement has mellowed with age. The frenzied pace of 1976 and 1977, he states, has slowed down, and states are now moving much more carefully. Action has shifted from policy-making to implementation, from legislatures to state departments of education and local districts.

The nature of state directives has changed as well. Previous legislation focused on graduation requirements, but more recent legislation mandates testing earlier in elementary schools and, in some cases, several testing checkpoints. The movement also shows more interest in the broader concerns of CBE, giving more emphasis to remediation and other problems created by proficiency requirements.

It is still too early to tell how well the new competency requirements will work, for implementation dates are far in the future. But some serious problems are emerging, Pipho notes, and these include uneven implementation efforts, lack of financial support for the new programs, and confusion over the nature of the learning goals. "The minimum competency testing movement," Pipho judges, "has clearly become an idea fraught with contradictions and controversy."

Pipho's article introduces fourteen additional articles on competency testing and CBE, chosen by Pipho himself, that form a special issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan*. The varied articles address theoretical issues of the movement, issues of national and state policy, and the experiences of local districts. This collection, providing a good summation of the current condition of minimal competency testing in the nation, is notable for its often cautious and sometimes critical approach. Some educators still show enthusiasm, but the evangelical advocacy of minimum standards of the past years, it seems, is being replaced by more mature and skeptical analysis.

123

Schalock, H. D. *Alternative Models of Competency Based Education.* 2d ed. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1976. 183 pages. ED 147 951.

Schalock provides the most comprehensive theoretical study of CBE and its potential. He places CBE in the context of related educational developments, surveys a variety of competency-based programs, scrupulously defines it and its parts, discusses its implications for school organization and operation, and illustrates in detail its possible forms. And despite his theoretical approach and the difficult technical language of CBE, his work remains accessible and grounded in practical concerns.

Allied with Spady (see below), who coauthored a draft version of this work, Schalock typifies the reform wing of CBE. He fleshes out CBE's mechanistic and managerial structure with the demand that education be more pragmatic in content and responsive to individual and community interests and needs. In this vein, he argues forcibly for life-role competencies, full individualization of education, and community participation in schooling.

His work is unique for its extensive consideration of possible options and alternative designs for CBE programs. He presents six basic program models of increasing complexity and discusses the developmental tasks, costs, liabilities, and benefits of each model. The most simple program is a "no frills" basic skills program that provides only limited individualization, minimizes community involvement, and incorporates only traditional program evaluation procedures. The most complex program—the ideal form of CBE—is a life-role program that is fully personalized (providing students flexibility in time, earning opportunities, learning outcomes, and assessment measures), community-assisted (involving the community in goal-setting and instruction), and fully data-based (incorporating both cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit data).

124

Schenck, E. Allen. *A Guide to Identifying High School Graduation Competencies: Issues and Examples.* Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1978. 144 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

Educators confused over the nature of the learning goals of CBE can benefit from Schenck's *Guide*, a pragmatic and suggestive discussion well illustrated by example. Because of its practicality and clear, nontechnical prose, it is a valuable complement to the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's more rigorous *Alternative Methodologies*.

An initial essay considers the crucial questions of outcome identification, discusses alternative responses, and draws tentative conclusions. Consistent with other publications of the Northwest Lab, Schenck's essay favors life-role competencies, which describe students' "ability to apply basic and other school skills in commonly encountered situations of everyday life."

A good illustration of Schenck's work is his discussion of the desirable specificity of competencies. Very specific competency statements, he points out, best communicate the exact nature of what students must do and ease the development of assessment

measures and instructional activities and materials. But more general competencies are to be preferred. They allow greater instructional flexibility and can better accommodate individual differences. They also require fewer competencies to cover the same content; fewer competencies aid communication with school board members, parents, and the public and simplify recordkeeping.

Schenck concludes with a list of competencies developed from an analysis of competency statements from districts in Oregon and other states. The seventy-seven competency statements cover the seven content areas of communication, computation, technology, health, citizenship, consumer awareness, and career awareness. For each competency statement, Schenck identifies appropriate curricular programs and gives examples of life-role related performance. His compilation does not attempt to be definitive or exhaustive, but it offers a generous sampling of typical competencies freed from the idiosyncracies of individual district competency lists.

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125 **Spady, William G.** "Competency-Based Education: A Bandwagon in Search of a Definition." *Educational Researcher*, 6, 1 (January 1977), pp. 9-14. EJ number not yet assigned.

Since Oregon first instituted its new graduation requirements in 1972, numerous states have followed suit, forming what appears to be a new wave in American education. But for Spady, this new wave lacks a sound theoretical base and clear direction. It seems unified only by the common assumption that new standards will satisfy demands for accountability. States have jumped onto a competency bandwagon without recognizing that new standards require a reconsideration of school goals and structures.

In response, Spady develops a prescriptive definition and theoretical model of CBE that incorporate a fundamental revision of education. His work is difficult since it suffers from the overly precise language of the social sciences, but it is essential. Along with the work of Schalock, it provides the most comprehensive statement of the progressive reform vision of CBE.

The nucleus of Spady's essay is his formal definition of CBE. As he argues, CBE is *"a data-based, adaptive, performance-oriented set of integrated processes that facilitate, measure, record and certify within the context of flexible time parameters the demonstration of known, explicitly stated, and agreed upon learning outcomes that reflect successful functioning in life roles."*

The unique requirement of CBE, Spady continues, is its insistence that demonstrated competence be the sole basis for student advancement and graduation. This insistence on performance informs all aspects of the educational system: true CBE demands that competency-based instruction, measurement, and certification be closely integrated around specified learning goals. It also governs program management, for CBE uses performance data to diagnose weaknesses and prescribe changes in the educational system itself.

The implications of this vision of CBE are profound. As it replaces time-based with goal-based education, it challenges the traditional presuppositions of education. It questions the meaning of attendance, the validity of semesters and courses for organizing instruction, the meaning of a course, and normative grading.

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126 **Spady, William G.**, and **Mitchell, Douglas.** "Competency Based Education: Organizational Issues and Implications." *Educational Researcher*, 6, 2 (February 1977), pp. 9-15. EJ 156 147.

Following up Spady's essay of definition, Spady and Mitchell expand on Spady's initial concerns and more fully discuss the implications of CBE for school organization and administration. The two proceed in part by comparing and contrasting conservative and progressive approaches to CBE, arguing that only the latter, which entails a complete restructuring of schools, can hope to fulfill its expectations.

The conservative accountability approach to CBE, they point out, emphasizes more rigid standards as the means for improving student performance. But it notably fails to consider much else besides evaluation and certification. It tends to ignore problems of instruction, other than to clarify a limited range of traditional learning opportunities, and it accepts the current role structure of schools, which is marked by a narrowness and irrelevance of student role expectations.

The progressive reform approach, in contrast, adopts a comprehensive goal-based vision of education and demands that more meaningful instruction accompany its explicit standards. Drawing from the humanistic critics of education, it calls for the enrichment of learning opportunities to give students more and better means of learning and demonstrating life-role competence. As it promotes vital paths to new goals, it seeks to reduce the traditional custodial control or role-dominance of students and to provide instead a goal-centered control, one that uniquely promises to unite student goal pursuits and role expectations. Only such a reform approach, leading students to adopt the school's goals for themselves, can truly "mobilize the energies and direct the efforts of students and teachers."

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127 **Thompson, Sydney.** *Competency-Based Education: Theory & Practice. School Management Digest, Number 9. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 36.* Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1977. 52 pages. ED 149 413.

CBE promises everything to everybody, yet it is problematic and still largely untested. Educators may wonder just what it is and how well it can work in practice. Thompson's review attempts to answer these questions for an audience of school administrators on the basis of the available literature and interviews with practitioners. This work, clearly written and balancing theory and practice, serves as a valuable introduction to CBE and its complexities.

Thompson clarifies the sometimes confusing theory of CBE with a definition and a discussion of its implications, potential, and problems. He examines its policy and practice in three

48 representative programs: the basic skills program of California, the life-role program of Oregon, and the career major program of the Fairfield-Suisun Unified School District, California, which calls for a competency-based major in addition to a core of minimum skills. The California program is typical of many legislated programs in its limited scope and emphasis on assessment. The Oregon and Fairfield-Suisun programs come closest to fulfilling the demands of progressive CBE theory. The latter is especially notable for its ability to require achievement beyond the minimum and provide for full individualization.

Thompson's detailed discussion of CBE implementation is especially helpful. Program success and failure have hinged on the process of implementation, he writes; some well-intentioned districts have created disaster through poorly managed development. Reviewing the basic tasks of the process, he discusses alternative approaches, points out some false steps taken by individual districts, and makes what general and specific recommendations are possible. Educators stand the best chance for successful implementation, he argues, if they cultivate staff morale, start cautiously with a limited number of new outcomes and expand through model programs, address outcomes early in the curriculum, and link outcomes, instruction, and assessment in newly designed courses.

128 **Utz, Robert T.,** and others. "A Comparative Analysis of Two Modes of Implementing Competency Based Instructional Systems." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 9 pages. ED 089 468.

In this report, Utz and his associates compare the problems involved in instituting competency-based instructional programs in two radically different situations. The first program was instituted in the Toledo Public Schools and utilized a system of pilot programs in selected schools. The second program, instituted in the Toledo Diocesan Schools, was an immediate, broad-based program introduced in an entire school system over a period of two years.

In the Toledo Public Schools, a general "change model" was written that allowed each school to begin work on different areas of its program. Therefore, not all schools were working on the same problems at the same time. Once a particular school's needs were determined, plans were presented to the building administrators. Volunteers were selected, given a ten-hour inservice program in writing and categorizing objectives, criterion-referenced testing, and individualizing strategies. The various programs were tested, expanded, and made available on a broader basis to other volunteers.

Utz sent questionnaires to those who participated in the program. A majority of respondents indicated that the materials aided in identifying student deficiencies.

In contrast to the pilot programs of the Toledo Public Schools, the Toledo Diocesan Schools mandated almost immediate change. The system drew on professional educators from the universities, utilized a great deal of field-testing, and required a great deal of inservice time.

Utz draws several conclusions concerning the success of implementing competency-based programs. First, participation in the program is enhanced when teachers are presented with CBE as a system of organizing and evaluating curriculum, and *not* as a method of teaching. Teachers are likely to see this as a change dictated from above and outside, and they will correspondingly resent it.

Second, programs should be staffed initially by volunteers. Third, programs were most successful when instructional programs were presented as resources rather than as completed materials for presentation. Fourth, teachers in the program should be rewarded with released time, pay, or graduate credit.

EA 011 109

ED163629

9 Dealing with the Drug Problem

129 **Arthur, Gary L.; Sisson, P. Joe;** and **Nix, George C.** "Three Year Follow-Up Drug Survey of High School Youth in a Typical Georgia School." *Journal of Drug Education, 7,* 1 (1977), pp. 43-52. EJ 154 708.

If the findings from this third in a series of drug surveys are generalizable to the national high school population, there is a "growing disinterest in the drug scene" on the part of students.

When comparing these results with surveys taken in 1971 and 1974, the authors found that a greater percentage of students had completed formal course work in drug education, and a significantly larger number than in earlier surveys indicated they would like a course in drug education. Nevertheless, the researchers noted a decline across all four grade levels in general knowledge about drugs. There was only one exception to this decline: "the entire student body answered correctly 92 per cent of the items pertaining to marijuana." At the same time the level of knowledge about marijuana has increased in each survey, knowledge pertaining to the legality of certain drugs, especially hard drugs, has declined.

The actual use of drugs is generally limited to less dangerous or legal drugs. The substances most frequently used were cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana, in that order. Seventy-nine percent of all students reported having tried alcohol as compared with 52 percent for marijuana. Only 3 percent reported being regular users of alcohol, while 7 percent reported using marijuana on a daily basis. Most heartening of all, perhaps, is that of the 1,329 students surveyed, only 3 percent reported having tried heroin, and not a single student reported using heroin on a regular basis.

These survey results lead the authors to predict that "the time is ripe for a consistent and knowledgeable approach to drug education."

130 **Brown, Edward H., Jr.,** and **Klein, Andrew L.** "The Effects of Drug Education Programs on Attitude Change." *Journal of Drug Education,* 5, 1 (1975), pp. 51-55. EJ 118 981.

How can abusers of drugs be reached? What effect do communications in the media have on drug users?

To reach the substantial numbers of drug users in their population, all large American cities have established drug education and control programs in which media communications play a large role. Brown and Klein cite the ineffectiveness of the media campaign against cigarettes and suggest that "doubts remain as to the effectiveness of any type of mass media communication, regardless of its presentation, as being a means of attitude change."

To test their hypothesis that mass urban drug control programs have no effect on audience attitudes, the authors examined programs in five major cities. After comparing addiction rates over several years, they concluded that all programs have been ineffective. Despite major differences between programs, it appears that none "worked more or less effectively than the other."

The authors caution that the programs themselves may not have

50 "been in effect long enough to significantly influence attitude change." They feel that long-term research is now needed on all drug education programs, "especially those which have been in existence for only two or three years."

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Bushey, Julia A. *Drug Education: Goals, Approaches, Evaluation. ERS Report.* Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1975. 33 pages. ED 112 528.

Despite the increased attention paid to them, school drug programs have not been effective for any of several reasons. One major problem is the lack of a working definition of what "drugs" are. Some schools include coffee and tobacco in their programs, while others concentrate only on illegal or dangerous drugs—hallucinogens, stimulants, and depressants. There is little consensus as well about the goal of a drug program and how it should be integrated into the school curriculum. Is the program's goal to educate? To alter behavior? Should drug education be part of regular curricular offerings, or should it be extracurricular?

The different goals of drug education can be conveniently categorized into two approaches. The *cognitive* approach presents information concerning drugs and their effects in the belief that facts will lead to right choices. But drug surveys have revealed a boomerang effect in cognitive programs: increases in drug knowledge are often accompanied by increases in drug use.

Because the cognitive approach has been ineffective, educators are turning to *affective* programs. The goals of affective programs do not focus on drugs, but on people. Key concepts include increasing an individual's participation in alternatives to drugs, clarifying personal goals, improving decision-making skills, and improving a student's self-concept.

Even though the majority of school programs are now affective ones, Bushey warns "there is little objective evidence that their achievement affects drug use."

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Chow, Stanley; Ertle, Vicki; and **Keyes, David.** *Drug Education. PREP Report No. 36.* Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1972. 87 pages. ED 067 515.

Early drug education programs were often created in panic. They either scared students or gave them factual information that often led to greater drug use. Those early experiments are now being replaced. Chow and his colleagues confirm Bushey's observation that the trend is now away from information and "toward values training, humanization of the schools, and development of decisionmaking skills."

In this guide Chow and his associates offer advice for the drug education planner. First, planners are urged to get solid information on drug use from as many agencies as possible. What are the profiles of drug users? What drugs are being used and how frequently? Second, goals should be realistic. Schools can do only part of the job of drug education. Third, a decision must be made concerning the program's status. Will it be a part of the regular curriculum, or will it be extracurricular? Will teachers need special training? Fourth, a means of evaluation should be decided on early.

Of special interest in this publication are ten case studies of school drug programs. The samples have been chosen for their geographical distribution, some distinctive feature they possess, some acclaim they have achieved, or because they are preventive rather than rehabilitative. The studies range from the white-collar community of Coronado, California (population 17,000), which teaches a low-key values course, to Wayne County, Michigan's DARTE program, which employs a traveling two-person professional team that trains teachers, students, and administrators in drug laws, pharmacology, and sensitivity training.

The guide also evaluates six commercial drug programs.

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Clements, Mary. "Health and Drug Education—A Regional Approach." *Educational Leadership,* 35, 4 (January 1978), pp. 314-17. EJ 171 597.

An example of a drug program using an affective values approach is one in Council Bluffs, Iowa, called the Values Clarification Project.

Clements reports that the "major long-range goal of the Values Clarification Project is to achieve a reduction in the misuse of drugs and alcohol through the valuing processes in classroom instruction." Students will ideally "practice ways that are more positive, purposeful, and enthusiastic," a process that should "lead to the reduced instance of drug abuse."

Teaching values is different, of course, from the traditional skills generally taught to analyze academic problems. Specific values themselves are not taught. Rather, what is taught are the "skills necessary in decision making, communication, recognition, and management of feelings." One activity of the project has been to train students to do peer counseling, a common component of affective drug education programs.

The Berkeley Health Project, another program in the Council

Bluffs area, combats drug use by stressing an appreciation and understanding of how the body works. It teaches prevention of disease and encourages youth to make "their own sound decisions about personal and environmental factors that affect health."

134 **Doran, Bernadette.** "Kojak in Your Classrooms May Be Enough to Make You Lose Your Hair." *The American School Board Journal,* 165, 8 (August 1978), pp. 20-24. EJ number not yet assigned.

The growing presence of undercover narcotics agents in public schools is emerging as one of the most complicated controversies affecting public education. The infiltration of hard drugs into the schools poses serious problems to administrators and teachers, as well as raises unresolved questions about the best way to handle these problems. If secret surveillance is utilized, who should know beforehand—principals, teachers, other students? What kind of an atmosphere for learning exists where a teacher suspects students of being narcs?

Public schools across the country from Montgomery, Alabama, to Seattle, Washington, have made use of undercover activity, with varying responses and degrees of success. Some successful operations have been carried out without public knowledge, some with open community cooperation, while others have failed when an agent's cover was blown or when students found out about the activities and staged a walk-out. Superintendent S. John Davis of Fairfax County, Virginia, explains that his aim is "not to harrass students but to cut off supply." Nevertheless, students have protested narcotics activity as an intrusion that breaks down student-faculty relations and causes suspicion of new students. Legal issues such as obstruction of justice by teachers and students' rights to academic freedom and privacy may also be involved.

Frank Donner, professor of law at Yale University, notes that an overzealous narcotics officer in the school may actually make drugs more available in an effort to uncover users, and in the process achieve dubious results. Although most agents say they are after the pusher rather than the small-time user, it is often the latter who receives punishment while the pushers go free.

Because of the number and variety of related problems, other, less drastic measures may be preferable. Some officials feel that undercover agents may be used most effectively in places where school children congregate outside the school area, such as bookstores. Other officials suggest that undercover agents should be brought in only under severe circumstances, after all other alternatives have been tried unsuccessfully.

135 **Hoyt, Jane Hauser.** "Playing Against Drugs." *American Education,* 12, 10 (December 1976), pp. 21-25. EJ 156 582.

The philosophy of the Appleton, Wisconsin, drug prevention program is, "If children feel good about themselves, are able to make their own decisions, and understand their own values, they will have little or no need for drugs." The program has adopted the goals similar to many other affective drug programs: to improve student self-concepts and to teach problem-solving skills.

The program began with federal grants to study the overall drug and alcohol situation in Appleton and Wisconsin generally. Alcohol remains a major focus of the program in a state that ranks high in alcoholism. Originally the drug program spanned all the school years and was taught in the social studies curriculum. Gradually the program spread into other parts of the curriculum, but its length of coverage was restricted to grades two through six. The director of the program felt that "beyond sixth grade we were doing just remedial work—that many of a child's values and attitudes were set by then."

Games, role-playing, story-telling, and peer counseling are only a few of the innovative concepts employed. One teacher, for example, encourages his students to keep a "values journal."

Evaluations of the program revealed that it was successful in helping students become more outgoing in class, more willing to participate in activities, and more positive in their behavior outside the classroom.

136 **Jackson, Javon,** and **Calsyn, Robert J.** "Evaluation of a Self-Development Approach to Drug Education: Some Mixed Results." *Journal of Drug Education,* 7, 1 (1977), pp. 15-26. EJ 154 704.

Why do so many drug education efforts fail? Jackson and Calsyn note that many educators give as the reason the "failure to recognize the importance of peer influence in drug taking behavior." Programs that offer peer counseling and opportunities for self-development came into being when it was discovered that traditional drug information programs often led to higher levels of drug use. However, it still remains to be seen whether such "affective" programs of drug education are any more effective than are their predecessors.

The developers of the STRIDE Program (Students, Teachers, and Residents Involved in Drug Education) decided to rigorously evaluate their success. The program itself consisted of a communication skills workshop (two eight-hour days), activities in values clarification and problem-solving (a day and a half), and drug information and overdose aid training (two days). The developers hypothesized that, when compared with a control group not given training, STRIDE participants would be more knowledgeable about drugs and emergency procedures, would use fewer drugs, would indicate more positive self-concepts, and would be more skilled in empathy and communication.

The results replicated other findings according to which "drug education programs have failed to reduce drug usage." Even though the program devoted two days to drug information, participants were not more knowledgeable about drugs or emergency procedures than were the control group. Participants in the program did not show higher levels of self-esteem. Only in the creation of empathy were STRIDE participants significantly different from the control group.

But even negative findings have their uses. In this case, they point

to the need for program developers to define "clear objectives, state those objectives to the participants and design a specific program component for each objective."

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137 **Marion, David J.** *Crisis Intervention Project, Boston Public Schools, December 1, 1972-May 1, 1973. Evaluation.* Waltham, Massachusetts: Data Education, Inc., 1973. 89 pages. ED 110 862.

The Crisis Prevention-Intervention (CPI) Project in the Boston Public Schools is one answer to the often-repeated injunction that all segments of the community must be involved if drug education and treatment programs are to be successful. In this project, an advisory council was formed that consisted of the police chief, an officer from the fire department, the head of the civic association, a member from the local legal assistance office, a representative of the local mental health center, and representatives from the school district. This advisory council oversaw the workings of five support teams in five public schools. The support teams consisted of parents, students, teachers, and a police officer.

Although the CPI teams were not initiated primarily to handle drug problems, the advisory council did target drug abuse as an important area of concern, and the support teams often defined it as one of their most crucial problems. The theory behind the project is that by maintaining a close liaison with members of the advisory council, the teams are in an ideal position to influence those individuals in the community "whose actions determine whether an incident is effectively dealt with or whether it becomes the spark which sets off a major eruption."

Unfortunately, Marion reports that the teams were only partially effective, perhaps because they were plagued by a lack of professional training and inadequate communication channels. Still, the model offers attractive possibilities for involving the community in drug programs.

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138 **Mathews, Walter M.** "A Critique of Traditional Drug Education Programs." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 12 pages. ED 091 649.

Mathews succinctly summarizes two general teaching modes that have guided the course of drug education—the "converting" and the "supportive."

In the "converting" mode, a teacher or some official representative attempts to bring student "beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviors with respect to drugs *in congruence with* those sanctioned by the school." The converting mode employs four rhetorical methods of presenting material: directing, preaching, convincing, and scaring. All these styles have in common the appeal to external authority as its source of justification. Mathews notes that cinema has become a popular teaching tool in the converting mode, despite the revelation by the National Coordinating Council on Drug Education in 1972 that 84 percent of the films it reviewed contained "factual or conceptual errors."

Counseling by staff members or peers occupies a prominent place in the "supportive" mode, which allows students to work through problems on their own. While the success of the supportive mode remains to be convincingly demonstrated, Mathews cites a number of surveys that at least demonstrate conclusively the failure of converting programs.

His recommendations include group process training for teachers, student involvement in writing programs, and community cooperation. He believes that existing printed materials and films on drugs should be deemphasized or eliminated.

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139 **Reinhart, Richard A.** "The Family Drug Awareness Group: A Citizen-Initiated Example of Effective Community Concern." *Journal of Drug Education,* 4, 2 (Summer 1974), pp. 151-55. EJ 105 580.

Although all the prescriptions for successful drug programs stress the importance of involving parents, no existing literature tells how this might be done. Programs are generally founded within school systems or public service agencies, and, if parents are included, it is usually at the end of the process. But in the Family Drug Awareness Group of Ventura County, California, things happened in just the reverse manner.

The group came into existence through the efforts of a set of parents whose son, addicted to heroin and despairing of escape from it, committed suicide. The parents decided that "one important factor in their failure to help their son was their general ignorance about drugs and their effects," an ignorance they discovered that their neighbors shared.

After talking to the PTA, which offered its help, organizers turned to the media. The publicity struck a responsive chord in the county, which has more arrests for heroin addiction than does San Diego County, four times its size. Offers of help came from the county mental health agency, the district attorney's office, the police department, and a group called Teen Challenge.

The Drug Awareness Group decided that the greatest value lay in "using the opportunity of a family approach to explore and outline the interpersonal problems, developmental changes in adolescence, and family conflict sources that often underlie drug experimentation and abuse, at least among teenagers." It was decided that significant effort should go into "providing opportunities for genuine interaction between children and adults."

At the time the article was written the group had sponsored three group meetings and was in an expansion phase. Although little evaluation has been done, the program is seen by some as "a model which other communities might well emulate."

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140 **Southern Regional Council.** *Why Evaluate Drug Education? Task Force Report.* Atlanta: 1975. 40 pages. ED 119 052.

The weakest link in drug education is program evaluation. Too often the task of evaluation is delayed until the program has been completed, depriving participants of valuable information on goals and successes that could be of help when presented in the form of

progress reports. Often the evaluation is only a *pro forma* endeavor to satisfy a funding agency. Even when program administrators engage in aggressive evaluation, they are hampered by a lack of knowledge about what constitutes a complete evaluation.

This pamphlet offers much practical advice on evaluation writing by first distinguishing between two kinds of evaluation: "process" and "impact." The process evaluation lists components of the program, names of personnel, and techniques and methods used. Although this information forms an important part of the report, it is not the entire report, as some evaluators assume.

The real heart of evaluation occurs in the "impact" statement, which defines a measurable, feasible objective. It reports the "measure of change that took place in the target population." It includes a description of the target population, a statement of the amount of time the program covers, an explanation of "key factors" and "key indicators," and a rationale that explains the "logic underlying the choice of objectives as a step toward the overall goal."

This report also offers practical advice on cutting evaluation costs, guidelines for calculating the cost-effectiveness of the program, and advice for choosing an evaluator.

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141 **Wiggins, Xenia.** *Public Schools and Drug Education. Report of a Conference.* Atlanta: Southern Regional Council, 1972. 43 pages. ED 090 476.

This report presents the thoughts of educators, school administrators, and legislators at a 1972 conference in New Orleans, one of the earliest conclaves of its sort to address the wide-ranging problems of drug education in the schools.

Some of the information is dated, but the conference addressed itself to many questions that are still pertinent. When asked when drug education should begin, most educators agreed it should begin in the very earliest grades, since the average initiation into recreational drug use occurs between the ages of nine and eleven. Where should drug education appear in the curriculum? Many warned against placing it in a special class, thereby isolating it from the total pattern of a student's behavior.

How can the school reach high-risk users? One way is the institution of "rap" houses placed off campus where students can talk freely with other students about their problems. This recommendation, incidentally, has been incorporated in many affective drug education programs.

The task force recommends that school drug policies be flexible enough to deal with a variety of situations, that rules be enforceable, that every attempt be made to keep students inside the school system, that schools operate a liaison with the police department, and that students be involved with writing drug policies.

The task force report also includes a copy of a Maryland drug law that protects the confidentiality of information a teacher receives in the course of drug counseling. The enactment of such laws to protect both students and those who counsel them should be supported by school districts.

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142 **Wolk, Donald J.,** and **Tomanio, Anthony J.** "A Community-School Problem-Solving Approach to the Drug Situation." *Journal of Drug Education,* 4, 2 (Summer 1974), pp. 157-68. EJ 105 581.

Community drug education programs now bear less resemblance to drug programs than to interaction-oriented, self-awareness groups. Such is the case in this Connecticut community that decided a program "focusing . . . on drugs, *per se,* was not believed to be of prime usefulness." Rather, the community decided on a workshop format attacking major objectives: to promote awareness and appreciation of self and others, to practice skills for communication, and to plan ways of resolving current drug problems in the community.

One all-day workshop was scheduled for students, teachers, administrators, parents, ministers, and other interested persons. Over one hundred people attended and were divided into ten groups that identified major issues. Two followup workshops to explore these issues were scheduled in the ensuing two weeks.

The fact that each workshop drew smaller numbers than its predecessor might be interpreted as a sign of the program's failure. But in fact, from these meetings emerged a strong nucleus of about fifty people who formed four ongoing groups. Several members of one group began doing voluntary work with drug agencies. Another group sponsored rap sessions in the schools. A third worked with school administrators in human relations, and a fourth cataloged and made lists of summer recreational activities available as alternatives to drug use.

In this case the open meeting device worked effectively to attract volunteers whose energies were channeled into areas of their greatest interest.

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143 **Zimering, Stanley.** "Health and Drug Education—How Effective? (An Instrument to Evaluate Your Drug Education Programs.)" *Journal of Drug Education,* 4, 3 (Fall 1974), pp. 269-79. EJ 114 030.

Zimering's survey provides a refreshing alternative to standard drug program evaluations written by staffers, because he goes directly to clients—students who are in the best position to discuss their experiences in the program. Over ten thousand high school students completed questionnaires intended to gather information on current programs, to find out what students thought about their health programs and teachers, and to find what parts of the program are perceived by students as most interesting.

Survey results provided a fund of useful and interesting information. Students preferred class materials composed of "discussions by an ex-addict, special films, and class debates." Textbooks, pamphlets, and discussions led by medical specialists were rated the least interesting. Students were generally eager to receive drug information, but felt it should be concentrated in lower grades, especially grades four through nine. Zimering's survey corroborates other findings that "the fastest rate of increasing

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54 exposure to drugs occurs between the seventh and ninth grades."

In their relationships with health instructors, students felt they received accurate information. They felt their teachers were frank and encouraged open discussion but were no more knowledgeable than themselves about drugs.

In terms of personal use habits, only a minority of students felt "that they could deal with a drug problem on their own." They said they would turn to friends, a brother, or sister before any "authority figures such as parents, teachers, or principals."

EA 011 110

Declining Enrollments

ED163630

144 **Brody, Judith A.** "How to Close a School and Not Tear Your Community Apart in the Process." *American School Board Journal*, 163, 6 (June 1976), pp. 31-35. EJ 139 363.

Closing a school is necessarily an emotional and traumatic event for a community, but it need not tear the community apart. The "keys to success" in closing schools, states Brody, are "changing citizens' attitudes toward enrollment declines; long-range planning; and community involvement."

Community members tend to resist school closings because they often equate the closing of a school with the decline of the community or neighborhood. So it is important that the superintendent and board help citizens see the positive aspects of declining enrollment. Such benefits might include the potentials for community education centers and more early childhood and adult education programs, as well as opportunities for achieving racial integration and lowering the pupil-teacher ratio.

The easiest way to overcome the community's resistance to closings is to involve the community as extensively as possible in the planning and decision-making process. For example, a citizen task force could be established to "keep an eye on [enrollment] trends and make recommendations to the school board." The task force, though, must be broadly based to avoid the formation of opposing groups claiming that they were excluded from the decision-making process.

It is important, too, that the community be involved in long-range planning. The first step in this planning is to collect information (both past figures and future projections) on population, birthrates, budgets, staff, and facilities. Brody points out that these data are not always easy to come by, but she suggests that the state department of education might be a good place to start looking.

After compiling and analyzing the data, administrators must develop policies for reducing staff, utilizing surplus space, selling or leasing school buildings, and so forth. Again, it is imperative that the public be involved in the decision-making process so that a negative community reaction is avoided or at least minimized.

To support her suggestions, Brody includes in this well-written article several examples of how school districts have successfully and unsuccessfully dealt with school closures.

145 **Educational Facilities Laboratories.** *Surplus School Space: Options and Opportunities. A Report.* New York: 1976. 75 pages. ED 126 614.

Since school enrollments first began to decline, a wide range of new uses has been found for surplus school space. This EFL report—addressed mainly to concerned community members rather than administrative experts—discusses the factors that may influence reuse planning (population trends, state laws, zoning, private schools) and provides numerous examples of the new uses to which surplus classrooms or schools have been put.

First considerations for surplus space should often be given to "educational programs and services not adequately housed during a period of boom and growth," such as music, art, science, and vocational education. Another initial consideration should be the elimination of undesirable school buildings.

Vacant school facilities can often be used by a variety of public programs to make a school a "human services center." This kind of use is especially desirable when there are fewer school-aged children in a community, but more young adults and elderly. The new programs can even "help to hold in town the people who otherwise may choose to leave" and can help engender a feeling of revitalization in the community.

Sometimes another government agency can take over a surplus school, for example, a junior college or a parks and recreation department. Another interesting alternative is for the district "to create a nonprofit agency to take over the school buildings and manage programs." Other options include using surplus space for preschool and adult education programs, leasing space to private or other public schools, and selling a building for conversion to housing or industrial use (with the advantage that the property would be back on the tax rolls).

Whatever the situation, districts should first assemble all the facts (enrollment projections, operating costs, applicable laws, and an inventory of public and nonprofit organizations with unmet space needs), and then involve the public in the decision-making process.

146 **Eisenberger, Katherine E.,** and **Keough, William F.** *Declining Enrollment: What to Do. A Guide for School Administrators to Meet the Challenge of Declining Enrollment and School Closings. AASA Executive Handbook Series, Volume 2.* Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1974. 67 pages. ED 111 094.

Parents, students, teachers, and principals have enormous investments in their local schools—social, emotional, and financial. Despite the psychological pressures, however, some schools may have to close; alleviating the fears of these interested groups is probably the most important aspect of a successful school-closing policy. Community polls, coffee hours for small groups, interschool visitations by students and teachers, simulations by the board and administrators, and the channeling of energy toward constructive ends through the creation of effective task forces are just some of the ways to cope with potential problems before they develop.

Teachers in particular are adversely affected by declining enrollments. Young teachers are usually the first to be dismissed. A shift in concern by teacher organizations from salary levels to job security can be expected. The situation may be eased by early retirement incentives. Whatever solution is found, it must be planned for early and implemented systematically.

If school closure becomes necessary, the decision must be made carefully. Costs for maintenance materials, personnel, utilities, and capital outlay must be considered, and the financial benefits of selling or leasing buildings or parts of buildings must be measured against the likelihood of renewed enrollment growth. Several

56 criteria should be considered: geographic location, academic excellence, enrollment capacity as compared with present and potential use, facility condition, and recyclability of the building and grounds.

147 **Institute for Development of Educational Activities.** *Shrinking Schools. An I/D/E/A Occasional Paper.* Dayton, Ohio: 1975. 32 pages. ED 116 292.

One reason for holding conferences is to find out where the experts disagree. At I/D/E/A's national conference on enrollment decline, some of the many prominent authorities attending felt that decline would result in a drop in the pupil/teacher ratio. Others said that the drop in state support would force staff reductions severe enough to drive the ratio up, and still others argued that national experience indicated teachers would fight strongly enough for their positions that the ratio would remain about the same as it has been.

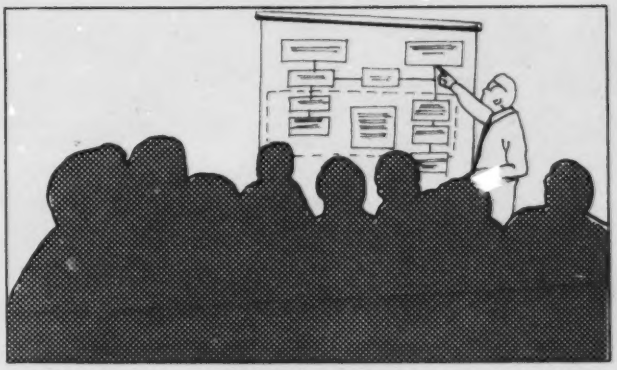
If no agreement could be reached on how the relationship among staffing, funding, and enrollment would be affected, there seemed to be little argument on how the community would respond. Participant Robert Savitt noted that the severe impact of enrollment drops coupled with economic stresses has allowed concerned community groups "to go right to the heart of the educational process in a way that they haven't been able to do before."

The school district's need to stay aware of local population trends was strongly stressed at the gathering. A business representative cited an example of the possible benefits of a positive response to decline: when the birthrate started to fall, Johnson & Johnson redirected its advertising to develop a new adult market, and the result was that over five years its business doubled despite a one-third cut in its original market. But the I/D/E/A conferees could not agree on whether this example indicated that a new market for education should be sought (preschool education, for example) to create revenue and provide jobs, or whether such funding as already existed should be concentrated on providing quality instead. In either case, a good advertising campaign might be crucial for turning public opinion around.

148 **Leggett, Stanton.** "How to Forecast School Enrollments Accurately—and Years Ahead." *American School Board Journal,* 160, 1 (January 1973), pp. 25-31. EJ 067 465.

Although dated, this article describes in full the "cohort survival" method of enrollment projection that is currently in wide use. Included here are detailed, step-by-step directions for using the method and three fill-in tables.

The first step in the method is to find the number of births in your district for each of the last ten years. Birth data can usually be obtained from local governmental units, but if it isn't available from these sources, the "projectionist" may have to resort to hospital birth registrations or community surveys. Leggett emphasizes that "coming up with the raw information to be used in your projections will be the most difficult and error-prone part" of the projection.



The next step is to compute the "cohort survival ratio" for each grade level, which "means the ratio between the number of children in one grade in a certain year and the number of children in the next higher grade the next year." For example, if "100 children attend third grade one year and 98 attend fourth grade the next year, the cohort survival ratio for grade 4 is 0.98."

The final step involves multiplying each grade level enrollment by the cohort survival ratio for that level, and then doing the same for the next year and the next, as far into the future as desired. These figures are entered on the enrollment projection table.

It should be well noted that this method gives a correct projection only in "a *pure* situation," as Leggett carefully points out. After the projection is made as outlined above, other practical knowledge about the district must be considered alongside the projection.

For example, districts should watch carefully for major changes in building patterns. Leggett suggests that administrators forge "warm friendships with the municipal authorities who control zoning" and talk often with developers and housing experts in the community. Other considerations should be the health of private schools in the area, transportation changes (such as new highways through the district), and national migration trends.

149 **Lyell, Edward H.,** and **Toole, Patrick.** *Student Flow Modelling and Enrollment Forecasting.* New York: Society for College and University Planning, 1974. 5 pages. ED 108 533.

Lyell and Toole claim that even if "good enrollment forecasting techniques exist, they have not been well-applied." Writing for those with some understanding of statistical procedures, the authors highlight the positive and negative aspects of ratio methods, cohort survival methods, Markov models, regression analysis, optimization methods, combinations of these, and even "guess-estimation." As they note, "when it comes time to make a forecast that has to be lived with at the institutional level, model results must be tempered with insight and experience."

The authors discuss forecasting at the national and state levels before citing examples of techniques used in higher education. Although the emphasis is on postsecondary education, the basic problems in generating reliable enrollment estimates also confront

the public school administrator.

Lyell and Toole urge cooperation among the different educational systems to develop an ongoing and mutually compatible data file that will allow all groups access to the information they need for coping with the future. Research on the effects of significant variables is needed, as well as the development of more innovative methods and techniques that can be validated.

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150 **Mazzarella, Jo Ann,** and **Barber, Larry.** *Facing Declining Enrollment: Considerations and Procedures.* Eugene, Oregon: Eugene School District 4J, 1978. 59 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

Planning and communication are the themes of this report on declining enrollment in the Eugene (Oregon) school district. Mazzarella and Barber discuss the causes and effects of declining enrollment, outline some of the problems facing the Eugene district, and offer suggestions for coping with declining enrollment.

Although overall enrollment in the Eugene district is declining, some schools on the developing periphery are overcrowded, while schools in the central city are operating well below capacity. This problem of maldistribution—common to many districts whether or not they are facing declining enrollment—underscores the importance of planning for enrollment changes, not only on the district level but school-by-school as well.

The first step in planning is to make a rough forecast of future enrollment, using a technique such as the cohort survival method. Then, other modifying factors must be considered, such as dropout rates, private school enrollments, the age ranges of populations in major residential areas, migration patterns, and—perhaps most important—residential building patterns and local land-use policy. In this last matter, the authors stress the importance of coordinating district organization with the plans of developers and local government bodies. Finally, accurate projections of future revenues and expenditures must be made.

Perhaps the most useful strategy for coping with declining enrollment is to increase communications with the community, the teachers, and the state. "Support from teachers and the community may depend on their realization that every effort has been made to reduce the budget before cutting staff or closing schools." An adequate public relations program—including widely disseminated news releases and perhaps flyers sent home with students—should make declining enrollment a common topic of discussion in the community. Equally important is the involvement of a broad range of concerned citizens in the decision-making process.

Included in this report are discussions of reduction in force, uses for surplus space, and factors to consider when deciding whether to close schools.

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151 **Minnesota Association of School Administrators.** *Managing School Districts with Declining Enrollments. Planning Assistance Manual.* St. Paul: Minnesota State Department of Education; Minnesota State Planning Agency, 1976. 79 pages. ED 128 919.

Planning is the key to making a smooth adjustment to enrollment decline. This manual's purpose is to make the task of planning an easier one for school boards and administrators. It outlines basic methods of collecting, organizing, and presenting data for use in enrollment and budget projections and staff and facility analyses. Although written especially for Minnesota school districts, the ideas presented are applicable to most districts facing declining enrollment.

The manual describes the cohort survival technique of enrollment projection and offers suggestions for illustrating the projections in graphical form. Also presented is a cookbook technique for projecting a budget that uses the results of an enrollment projection and estimates of future staff reductions. In addition to this "short technique," the manual briefly discusses a more complex method for forecasting budgets.

The method of facilities analysis outlined involves compiling data on each facility, such as dates of construction and additions, maximum capacity, present enrollment, and comments on the general adequacy of the building. Next, the cost per pupil at each building is determined. These data are then used to decide the fate of each building.

When decisions must be made on closing schools, it is essential that community members be involved in the decision-making process because of the "emotional attachments" of citizens to their local schools. When there is a choice of schools that might be closed, school districts should let a citizens committee establish the criteria for closings.

In one criteria system, citizen committee members first decided on the "criteria weight" of factors such as "maintenance cost/square foot" and "historical value of location." Then, each factor was rated for each school on a five-point scale. Finally, each factor's score was multiplied by the criteria weight for that factor, and the products were summed for each school. The school with the lowest score was the one to be closed.

Included in this wide-ranging manual are suggestions for analyzing staff and planning referendums. The manual is part of a set of documents that includes five detailed case studies of Minnesota school districts.

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152 **National School Boards Association.** *Declining Enrollment. Research Report.* Evanston, Illinois: 1976. 30 pages. ED 122 439.

According to U.S. Office of Education projections, "total public and private school enrollments will drop 11% from 1972 to 1982," mainly due to a declining birthrate. But this NSBA report points out that *migration* causes most of the *local* fluctuations in population (and school enrollment). Thus, it is important that school districts plan for their future enrollment needs using local data, particularly with regard to the number of young families in the district.

Admittedly, long-range planning is both difficult and time-consuming. To facilitate this task, the report outlines the cohort survival method of enrollment projection, including step-by-step directions and three fill-in tables. Also discussed is New Jersey's "Master Plan" method that requires districts to develop a ten-year

58 enrollment projection based on demographic factors.

When enrollment drops, so does state support. But it takes "three years or more before the loss of a modest number of students enables a school district to cut costs." To help "cushion" schools in times of declining enrollment, several states have adopted measures that gradually decrease aid over a one-to-five-year period after an enrollment decline. NSBA encourages school systems to actively lobby for similar measures in states without them.

Even with such measures, the hardships of declining enrollment are greater for smaller districts because "larger districts realize greater economies in operation and have more flexibility in administrative arrangements." A Maryland task force, for example, has reported that "a school with about 200 students will cost, *on the average*, 20 percent more per student than a school with 300 students." Also, when manpower needs to be cut, large districts can cut heavily in administration and special services, whereas small districts must make cuts in teacher ranks.

Other topics include considerations when closing schools, uses for surplus space, strategies for cutting back staff, and the importance of public relations in times of declining enrollment. This report, one of the better publications on declining enrollment, would serve as an excellent introduction to the subject.

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153 **Piatt, Robert S.** "A Reorganized Elementary School Structure to Accommodate Declining Enrollment." 1975. 147 pages. ED 111 111.

As assistant to the superintendent of a Pennsylvania school district, the author supervised a restructuring of the elementary system. Of the four communities composing the district, three had two elementary schools and the fourth had one. With a 23 percent drop in enrollment from 1966 to 1975, few schools found themselves left with more than one class at any grade level, and one of these classes contained only thirteen pupils.

Piatt's alternative turned one school in each of three communities into a primary (grades one to three) school, and the other into an intermediate (grades four to six) school. Benefits he sought and apparently achieved included more balanced class sizes, the possibility of separating problem children, opportunities for multilevel instruction in mathematics and reading, closer professional contact between teachers of the same grade level, unification of communities previously split along artificial school attendance boundaries, and reduction in the duplication of materials and efforts (easing the budgetary headaches of enrollment decline). What difficulties there were appeared in the area of transportation, but the entire program was nonetheless regarded as highly successful by parents, teachers, administrators, and students.

Piatt's documentation of his program is almost too thorough. He provides a copy of every administrative order he mentions, as well as newspaper clippings and questionnaire forms. The test fills only the first third of the document and is largely a blow-by-blow chronology of the development of the concept from planning stages through implementation to evaluation.

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154 **Piele, Philip,** and **Wright, Darrell.** *Enrollment Forecasting. Educational Facilities Digest 1.* Columbus, Ohio; and Eugene: Council of Educational Facility Planners, International; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1976. 9 pages. ED 117 782.

The literature on enrollment forecasting is written from two basic viewpoints. Mathematicians, statisticians, and demographers are interested in finding the ideal methods of forecasting accurately. Administrators and facilities planners are interested in the best techniques for applying the methods that the theorists develop.

Understanding the community and the ways in which it is changing and realizing the effects that social and political pressure groups can have on how factors are interpreted are just as important as knowing the strengths and weaknesses of the different forecasting techniques.

This review provides a brief introduction to the field before presenting an annotated bibliography of twenty-eight major documents covering the full range of attitudes toward enrollment forecasting.

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155 **Sargent, Cyril G.** and **Handy, Judith.** *Fewer Pupils/Surplus Space. A Report.* New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1974. 55 pages. ED 093 046.

Even if the fertility rate remains at its current replacement level, the large number of women now entering the childbearing years will cause the total number of children born to rise slowly, and enrollments will return to and even surpass previous record highs. The mobility of the population will determine where the trends of decline and return are felt most strongly.

Districts that once could not keep pace with growth now find themselves with empty classrooms, which can be turned to educational or noneducational uses. Government and private agencies, especially in this age of community consciousness, can often find use for vacated space, though whether districts should or can sell, lease, rent, trade, or even give away their unused buildings depends on a great number of legal and practical considerations, as well as expectations of future needs.

When schools are closed, planning is the most important part of the process. Obtaining all the facts and opinions, proposing alternatives, and then choosing the best of the proposals is the only way to be sure of needed community and staff support. How the plan and the planning process are communicated to the people who will be affected is the second major concern. The public's ideas and suggestions must be actively sought, and school board and administrative proceedings kept as open and accessible as possible.

Sargent and Handy's report is probably the outstanding classic in the field, full of examples detailing how theory has been put into practice across the country. Figures and tables complement a readable text, and sources for more information and for obtaining enrollment forecasting tools are provided in abundance.

156 **Sebulsky, Wayne L.; Wiebke, Frederick V.; Radel, Richard J.; Hoopert, Donald O.; Bliven, Seth I.; Moon, W. Crawford;** and **Batt, Paul.** "What Are Schools Doing?" *NASSP Bulletin,* 61, 407 (March 1977), pp. 59-67. EJ 160 405.

Many practitioners are finding innovative solutions to the multitude of problems created by declining enrollments. For example, a small rural school district in Colorado facing a 45 percent decline in enrollment over a ten-year period is cooperating with a neighboring district with similar problems. The two districts are sharing teachers in music, science, math, and special education and are considering the establishment of a secondary school in one district and an elementary center in the other.

A senior high school in suburban Pennsylvania is taking the opportunity afforded by declining enrollment to improve instruction and solidify the curriculum. Because of lower staff mobility, development work with individual teachers is more directly benefiting the school. This school also encourages its staff to use community resources and creative materials instead of mass-produced (and costly) educational materials.

In a corner of upstate New York, a rural high school is considering opening its enrollment to nonresidents in neighboring Canada and Vermont, who would pay tuition to attend the school because it is closer to their homes. Other districts are handling declining enrollment by not hiring new teachers and shuffling their current staffs to fill vacancies. And a private school in Buffalo, New York, has more applicants than positions because of an ambitious student recruitment program.

157 **Sieradski, Karen.** *Implications of Declining Enrollments for Schools. School Leadership Digest Series, Number 17. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 19.* Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 32 pages. ED 114 906.

"Taken positively, the implications of declining enrollments are that enterprising and creative school administrators will develop better programs as they condense them," says Sieradski in this survey of the literature. "They will devise equitable RIF [reduction in force] policies with the teachers' unions and will become even more prominent as public leaders when they unite with community task forces to solve the problems of school closings."

The first step is to forecast enrollments as accurately as possible, both for the near future and for the next ten to twenty-five years. There are many indicators from which the alert observer can deduce a coming enrollment decline, and many methods for developing forecasts. Most often cited among these is the cohort survival technique. But these methods and the figures they generate can be used to support conflicting points by groups with different axes to grind.

Planning by officials is the next major step and must include how programs and personnel are to be cut back and how continued costs are to be met in the face of decreasing state support.

If school closure is necessary, community involvement in planning is vital. Task forces are one excellent way of turning community activism resulting from the undesirable facts of decline into a positive force for finding acceptable solutions. Alternatives to closure must be considered closely, but if they prove impractical, decisions still remain about which school to close, and whether to lend, lease, or sell the buildings and grounds.

While the subject is receiving more (and more thorough) attention with each passing year, Sieradski's paper is an excellent condensation of the ideas and attitudes prevalent prior to 1975, especially in relation to the elementary school.

158 **"Surplus School Buildings: New Opportunities for Adaptive Use."** *AIA Journal,* 66, 4 (April 1977), pp. 59-63. EJ 157 013.

For a number of reasons, simply closing a school in response to declining enrollment usually does not result in significant savings. Surplus school buildings are much more valuable, both economically and socially, when they are put to new uses. According to the Educational Facilities Laboratories, "more school buildings have been converted to new uses that benefit communities than any other building type."

Some of the advantages of school buildings are that they usually have central locations, they are designed for public occupancy, most meet emergency code requirements, and most have adequate storage space and utilities. In addition, conversion for most uses requires minimal remodeling.

The ease of conversion depends on the vintage of the building, as does the type of conversion for which the building is most suitable. Pre-World War II buildings, until recently considered "institutional monsters" by some architects, "lend themselves most readily to a variety of transformations, and are especially well-suited to conversion into housing." Some of the advantages of these buildings are their high ceilings that can be lowered for electrical and mechanical systems, their large classrooms that can easily be converted to apartments, and, in some, attic and basement space that can be "recaptured" for use.

Buildings constructed just after World War II, with "strings of small classrooms" and relatively low ceilings, are the most difficult buildings to convert for any use. In contrast, schools of the 50s and 60s built on the "campus" or "pavilion plan" are easy to convert, because they usually have post-and-beam construction that is conducive to repartitioning. Included are five examples, replete with pictures, of successful conversions of schools to other uses.

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11 Improving School Climate

ED163631

159 **Bogue, E. G.** "One Foot in the Stirrup." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 53, 8 (April 1972), pp. 506-8. EJ 056 948.

"The man who tells the truth should have one foot in the stirrup." This old Turkish proverb—the source for the title of Bogue's lively article—describes the situation in many schools. Bogue believes administrators must foster an organizational climate in which subordinates who communicate openly about problems or dissatisfaction do not have to live "with one foot in the stirrup."

Bogue maintains that an organizational climate of trust and openness produces high productivity. He believes that administrators must be aware of the function of conflict and negative feedback in an organization as the impetus for positive change. Administrators must learn to view dissatisfaction and criticism as something to be listened to rather than to be repressed. They must learn to manage conflict and channel it so that it is not disruptive but is the first step toward organizational renewal.

Bogue notes that an open, trusting climate where subordinates are not afraid of expressing ideas is based on an administrator's positive self-concept. Self-confident administrators are able to avoid defensiveness in the face of criticism and to value conflict as a way of learning about their strengths and their weaknesses.

160 **Bonney, Lewis A.** "Changes in Organizational Climate Associated with Development and Implementation of an Educational Management System." [1972]. 26 pages. ED 066 790.

Bonney describes efforts in the San Bernardino City (California) Unified School District to improve school climate by decentralizing decision-making and sharing responsibility for program results. The fifty-eight schools in this program instituted what Bonney calls a "humanistic" management system in which teachers, principals, and the superintendent met together to choose school goals and classroom priorities.

The instrument they used to measure changes in school climate was Likert's "Profile of Organizational Characteristics," which found significant changes in leadership processes, motivational forces, and communication processes. Specifically, principals were more motivated to achieve school and district goals and felt that superiors and subordinates displayed more trust and confidence and were more committed to organizational goals. In addition, the schools showed improvement in achievement scores.

Of special interest is the appendix, which outlines the elements of the plan in four particular schools. These include the specific school goals and strategies actually prepared by teachers and principals.

161 **Breckenridge, Eileen.** "Improving School Climate." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 58, 4 (December 1976), pp. 314-18. EJ 148 056.

This story of changes in one school's climate is a little reminiscent of an old-time melodrama. When the authoritarian principal "Mr. Jefferson" turns into approachable, power-sharing "Bob

Jefferson" there is a temptation to cheer the miraculous conversion. In spite of the soap-opera suspense, however, the article has a ring of truth to it, and scattered throughout the drama are explanations of a number of useful techniques for improving school climate.

Breckenridge (a pseudonym) begins by describing techniques for improving school climate used in a workshop attended by teachers in her anonymous Oregon district. This workshop was run by William Maynard, the author of an article described elsewhere in this chapter.

Most important of these techniques is the 1-3-6 exercise, which begins with individuals making lists of their ideas of what is needed to improve the school. Participants then meet in groups of three and combine their lists, deleting no items but listing identical items only once. Finally, groups of six are formed, which again consolidate lists. In this way comprehensive lists of perceived school problems can be communicated to school authorities without fear of reprisals.

After the lists have been compiled, each person ranks all the items according to priority, and all the priorities are tallied to determine the top ten problems on which the staff should focus.

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162 **Clark, Frank J.** *Improving the School Climate. Operations Notebook 19.* Burlingame, California: Association of California School Administrators, 1977. 42 pages. ED 145 567.

Clark is so excited about his and others' ideas for improving school climate that his paragraphs sometimes tumble all over each other in random order, and he is so intensely involved with his subject matter that he often doesn't bother to explain what he is talking about. Nevertheless, there are numerous good ideas crammed into the pages of this many-faceted notebook, and it is worth the trouble of trying to extract them.

Most valuable are the many practical and specific suggestions for improving school climate that have been used by school districts. These suggestions include such things as a teacher advisory board, a student forum, and a variety of feedback forms for staff and students.

One of Clark's methods for defining school climate is to describe the characteristics of schools that have poor climates. These he lists as low innovativeness drive, job dissatisfaction, student alienation, lack of creativity, complacency, uniformity, and frustration. Administrators can use this list as a checklist to see if their schools need to put energy into school climate improvement techniques.

Clark explains the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, which he calls "one of the best tools to assess school climate." He includes sample questions from the instrument and explains how scoring works. He explains, too, the CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile Instrument. A short bibliography is also attached.

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163 **Doak, E. Dale.** "Organizational Climate: Prelude to Change." *Educational Leadership,* 27, 4 (January 1970), pp. 367-71. EJ 022 630.

"This climate is the cornerstone for educational change," contends Doak of organizational climate. He believes that one reason educational innovations often fail is that important factors in the organizational climate are ignored.

For Doak, the factors that determine organizational climate are "goal definition, leadership style, morale, and self-worth." Each of these must receive prime attention in planning for change. For an organization to be ready for change, its goals must first be concurrent with the goals of the individuals in it, and the morale and feelings of self-worth of its members must be high.

Most of all, the organizational leader must create an "open climate," which to Doak means that individuals are constantly searching for alternatives. This is based on an administrator's courage to admit that clear, pat answers to highly complex issues do not now exist. In short, an administrator must be able to live with ambiguity.

In this article, Doak makes graphic his theories about the influence of the organizational climate on the change process by providing a model depicting each step in the change process in schools.

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164 **Edeburn, Carl,** and **Zigarmi, Drea.** "Organizational Climate and IGE: An Assessment and Implications." Paper presented at the National Association for Individually Guided Education annual conference, Cincinnati, November 1977. 14 pages. ED 149 455.

Virtually everyone involved with education recognizes the importance of school climate, and researchers have made numerous attempts to analyze this intangible quality. Investigators have, for example, subdivided the overall atmosphere into various categories, including esprit, hindrance, consideration, supportiveness, orderliness, impulse control, and others. Their motivation should be obvious: an accurate measurement of school climate might guide administrators in assessing the motivation of their staffs as well as in solving problems and implementing change.

Edeburn and Zigarmi are particularly interested in innovation, and they have consequently focused on "openness" as an essential characteristic of a healthy school administration. Working under the assumption that an "open" school would be more amenable to change, they compared personnel attitudes of individually guided education (IGE) schools with those of their non-IGE counterparts. The authors administered their Staff Development School Climate Questionnaire to 127 elementary school teachers from three upper-midwestern suburban districts. The results bore out Edeburn and Zigarmi's expectations: teachers view the climate of IGE schools more positively.

In light of this study, administrators of IGE schools can feel optimistic about their staffs' willingness to accept change and capacity for problem-solving. This is encouraging news, of course, but Edeburn and Zigarmi do not make excessive claims for their study. "The results are credible," they emphasize, "yet far from conclusive." They are confident, however, that they have developed an important instrument for measuring school climate.

A twenty-four item bibliography is a useful addendum to this paper.

165 ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. *School Climate. Research Action Brief.* Eugene: University of Oregon, 1978. 5 pages. ED 150 673.

Even if the term is bandied around knowingly, the nebulous phenomenon we call "school climate" has proved elusive. This articulate summary of the research makes it apparent that investigators and educators are still looking for direction. All too often theoreticians argue about appropriate measurements while practitioners resort to vague injunctions.

The analysis of the research starts with Halpin and Croft's development (1962) of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), an instrument that has had a significant influence on the research. In this seminal study, school climate was broken down into eight categories, a real advance over previous investigations, which had been content to equate climate with "morale." The author notes, however, that the OCDQ has not held up under the scrutiny of subsequent researchers—that it too is an oversimplification of the factors that make up an educational environment. Wiggins (1972), for example, found that the OCDQ relied too much on teachers' perceptions and that principals do not have such a compelling influence on the psychology of the school. Walden and his colleagues (1975) also found that school climate is not so neatly packaged or so amenable to control as Halpin and Croft had assumed.

Administrators have, understandably enough, been less interested in the academic questions and more interested in the pedagogical impact of school climate. Their reports have consequently tended to applaud the accomplishments of educators who have wrought significant changes in their districts or schools. Still another approach is that taken by Shaheen and Roberts (1974) in their attempt to synthesize a descriptive analysis of climate with recommendations for action. Their Climate Profile takes in factors beyond the immediate school and looks to the district superintendent for leadership.

All these approaches have something to offer, but none of them is definitive. The research on school climate is clearly still in its infancy, and there are no quick remedies for educational lethargy.

166 Howard, Eugene R. "School Climate Improvement." *Thrust for Educational Leadership,* 3, 3 (January 1974), pp. 12-14. EJ 092 195.

"I am convinced that it is now possible to build a school climate within which pupils and staff will be happier, more mentally healthy, more positive in their outlook on life and more productive," concludes Howard in this clearly written article containing a number of techniques for accomplishing just that.

Howard's own particular definition of school climate is the "aggregate of social and cultural conditions which influence individual behavior in the school—all of the forces to which the individual responds which are present in the school environment."

The author uses Halpin and Croft's terms "open" and "closed" to describe school climates, though he means by these something a bit more specific than these early researchers did. By "open" he means

climates that evidence widespread involvement in decision-making, foster open communication channels, and "stimulate learners and encourage self-confidence and independence."

Howard suggests "opening" the school climate by forming nonhierarchical teaching teams, including students in the evaluation of their work, and revising the grading system to offer more opportunities for success. One unique idea is to interview a group of the students generally thought of as the school's "losers" and to form a task force to do something about one of their concerns.

167 Howard, Eugene R. *School Discipline Desk Book.* West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1978. 250 pages. ED 150 707.

In an age of increasing social turbulence, school administrators are wont to blame discipline problems on factors beyond their control—lack of parental guidance, social injustice, or the media, for example. Educators might not be able to remedy all the ills of society, but they can, Howard argues, do much to improve the schools. The solution lies not in permissiveness or "get tough" policies, but in the whole educational milieu.

Tangible evidence lies in the dramatic reforms of schools like Cleveland High in Seattle and Blauvelt Elementary in Cottage Lane, New York. The inner-city school, for example, was once the site of riots, heavy drug use, high absenteeism, and discouraging academic achievement. With the guidance of an enthusiastic principal, William J. Maynard (see his article elsewhere in this chapter), absenteeism has plunged, security officers are no longer needed, 35 percent more students are college bound, and drug use has dropped off considerably. Jo Ann Shaheen's administration at the suburban elementary school has seen a significant reduction in problems on the buses, an end to lunchroom and playground disturbances, and impressive academic progress.

There is nothing miraculous about these success stories; morale is the key. Howard offers a wealth of practical suggestions for principals who would like to see a similar reinvigoration of their own schools. Three chapters are devoted to recommendations for solutions to immediate issues—crime and violence, discipline problems, and classroom disruption. Howard's counsel ranges from taking unruly students on a retreat and organizing a student security advisory committee to improving the cafeteria and identifying teachers who need help.

The three ensuing chapters address more fundamental changes—improving students' self-concepts, increasing student involvement, and improving morale with a more varied curriculum. Again, Howard's advice is pragmatic and to the point: he advocates modifications in grading structures, athletic competitions that foster ethnic pride, and development of independent study programs along with a host of other ideas.

Howard has no patience with hopeful conjecture; he looks for results, not gestures. All his advice is founded on the experiences of over one hundred schools that have tested these procedures. With its breadth and attention to particulars, this work should be a standard reference for all administrators who would rather deal with morale problems than make excuses for them.

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168 **Maynard, William.** "A Case Study: The Impact of a Humanistic School Climate." *NASSP Bulletin*, 60, 399 (April 1976), pp. 16-20. EJ 149 642.

Maynard's article is a little short on theory, but it is long on specific and useful ideas for improving school climate. Maynard does not bother to outline his conception of what a humanistic school climate is or to make any generalizations about the elements that make it up, but he does tell a refreshing story of how Cleveland High School in Seattle was made "a more satisfying place to be" by "students and administrators working together" on projects that ranged from implementing a shared decision-making model to painting murals in the halls.

When Maynard first became principal of Cleveland High, the students felt alienated, skipped class, and frequently requested to transfer to other schools. Three years later, students were proud of their school, the absentee rate improved from 35 percent per period per day to 5.6 percent, and more students wanted to transfer into the school than out.

One of Maynard's techniques for solving Cleveland's problems was to form a school climate team of students and faculty to develop projects and ideas designed to improve the school. The opportunities for shared decision-making that Maynard introduced into the school included having teachers and students on committees that interview prospective staff members, make budget decisions, and regulate "almost every function within the building."

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169 **Newell, Terry.** "Organization Development in Schools." *American Education*, 9, 10 (December 1973), pp. 28-32. EJ 090 452.

Newell describes organization development (OD) as a means for improving the organizational climate in schools. He defines organizational climate as "the variety of individual and group behavior patterns" in the school. He explains that OD "rests on the assumption, born out of sociological and psychological research, that organizational health requires an organizational climate characterized by mutual trust, open communication, and participatory decision-making."

Newell gives examples of various training efforts that organizational developers have undertaken to improve communication and problem-solving skills in schools in the Northwest. Schools whose staffs participated in such training reported a decrease in teacher turnover and a widespread feeling by teachers that they were better able to make decisions and to facilitate group decision-making.

Newell contends that the success of school innovation or reform depends on a healthy organizational climate. When "this climate is marked by distrust, lack of commitment to the innovation, poor communication, intergroup conflict, unclear goals, ineffective decision-making, or similar behaviors, the chances for successful reform are considerably diminished." Thus, OD attempts to facilitate needed innovation in schools by first creating a climate ready to accept change.

Warning that OD is not a panacea, Newell emphasizes that it is not "neatly packaged" but rather a complex body of theory and technique that must be used carefully and differently in each unique educational system.

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170 **Phi Delta Kappa.** *School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator. An Occasional Paper.* Bloomington, Indiana: 1974. 149 pages. ED 102 665.

This paper is a lengthy and complete guide to enhancing school climate. It is based on the authors' belief in the importance of a "humane" school climate. They view respect, trust, high morale, opportunities for input, cohesiveness, renewal, and caring as major components of such a climate. Aimed largely at principals, the paper envisions the administrator's role regarding school climate as one of assessing needs, setting goals, and reducing goals to manageable projects. Schools with high absenteeism, discipline problems, or faculty apathy will find suggestions here aimed at solving such problems.

According to the authors, the first and most significant step in improving school climate is its assessment and analysis. Toward this end, they reprint the entire CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile to help administrators determine what aspects of school climate need improvement. They also include a checklist to gauge school climate improvement.

The publication presents ideas and suggestions from several authors as well as from 200 school administrators involved in school climate improvement. Such suggestions include involving staff and students in brainstorming sessions to identify climate problems, organizing a collegial team to undertake school climate improvements, and visiting other schools involved in school climate projects. The paper also includes a seven-page bibliography of readings, assessment instruments, films, and "human resources."

171

Shaheen, Thomas A., and **Pedrick, W. Roberts.** *School District Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Superintendent.* Denver: CFK Ltd., 1974. 154 pages. ED 105 605.

Based on the Phi Delta Kappa publication for principals, this lengthy paper focuses on the role of superintendents and other central office personnel in building a vigorous school climate throughout the school district. Shaheen and Pedrick provide a complete step-by-step guide for administrators who want to develop "the healthy climate needed by the school district to support positive growth."

The tightly organized paper first lists initial goals for becoming a school climate leader, then lists projects for attaining those goals and how to go about them. Another section includes a number of activities that facilitate the involvement of staff in setting climate improvement goals. Finally, the publication lists school district climate determinants and describes "what each determinant might look like in a school district where the climate for that particular determinant is exemplary."

Although examples of exemplary school climates are a bit less concrete than might be wished ("Each of those concerned with the problem has input into the decision" or "Staff actively works toward the elimination of failure"), these broad generalizations are nevertheless flexible enough to be applicable to each district's unique problems.

The CFK Ltd. School District Climate Profile is included, as well as a fifteen-page bibliography of readings, assessment instruments, and persons knowledgeable on the subject.

172

Tippitt, Albert G.; Tripp, Robert; Bibb, Charlotte; and **Davis, S. John.** "A Change Effort in 3-D: Intentional Understanding." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 414 (January 1978), pp. 69-74. EJ 171 516.

"Most teachers have been well trained in their subject areas. However, teachers and administrators also have tremendous impact on the behavior of students and their personality development. Unfortunately, they have been given very little training in creating a climate in which people can work together in peace." Tippitt and his colleagues emphasize that educators may defeat their own goals by paying inadequate attention to creating a suitable atmosphere for learning.

The most important prevention technique is simple vigilance—the schools must monitor their own health. Tippitt and his coworkers report that the Fairfax County (Virginia) schools have adopted a three-step system that compels the district to take a hard look at itself. The first phase of the program is assessment, a process that seeks to define the climate of the school and measure communication and participation. "The underlying premise of the assessment approach is that gathering data provides a solid basis not only on which to propose new programs, but also on which to modify policies and practices."

This first phase is followed by an on-the-job training program, a three-hour graduate seminar offered by the University of Virginia. The seminar focuses on interpersonal and group relations, attempting to undermine any irrational attachment to the status quo. Articulation, the final stage of the system's forced self-analysis and another "form of nonpunitive pressure designed to stimulate change," strives to keep educators and the public informed.

Considering the effects of lethargy or strife on the education of children, school officials are bound to take any means possible to promote a harmonious environment. The Fairfax system can only be as effective as its participants, but at the very least it discourages complacency.

173

Wiggins, Thomas W. "Principal Behavior in the School Climate: A Systems Analysis." *Educational Technology,* 11, 9 (September 1971), pp. 57-59. EJ 046 738.

Instead of examining the administrator's effect on the school climate as most authors do, Wiggins examines instead the effects of school climate on the administrator. Wiggins sees organizational climate as "the state of the organization which results from the interaction that takes place between organizational members as they fulfill their prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs." This makes him different from other authors who see organizational climate as something that produces certain behaviors rather than something that *is produced by* these behaviors.

One corollary of Wiggins's theories is that principals are more influenced by organizational climate than they influence it. He believes that we must reexamine the theories that maintain that the "power, authority and influence of school principals provide the major source of thrust and significance to the educational enterprise."

Specifically, Wiggins believes that principals are greatly influenced by a need for the internal approval of the staff and the external approval of the district. He has noticed that "the principal's personality becomes gradually dominated by the school's expectations as the length of time he is in school increases."

Apparently Wiggins does not see this state of affairs as inevitable, however. He believes his theory has implications for the choosing and training of school principals "who can contribute applicable expertise to the total system and not merely perpetuate existing traditions."

174 **Wood, Fred H.** "Attitudes toward a Personalized, Individualized High School Program." *NASSP Bulletin*, 60, 399 (April 1976), pp. 21-25. EJ 149 643.

In this article, Wood describes a program designed to improve school climate by individualizing instruction, improving communication, expanding learning options, and personalizing the relationships among teachers, students, parents, and administrators. This program is the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities (I/D/E/A) change program for high schools, also referred to as the Learning Community School (LCS) model.

This model, as adopted by McCluer North High School in St. Louis County, Missouri, in 1971-72, included contracted learning and out-of-school learning options for students as well as teacher advisors for every twenty students. These advisors helped students plan a personal learning program as well as reported progress to parents. In addition, a teacher advisory decision-making group was appointed, an extensive parent communications program was developed, and a number of parents and other adults became involved in the school through the out-of-school learning program.

Results of the program that had direct effects on the school climate included students' positive feelings about the school and their teachers; the staffs' positive feelings about their profession, students, and the principal; and parents' support of the school, teaching staff, and curriculum.

EA 011 112

ED163632

12 Leadership Effectiveness

175 **Balderson, James H.** "Principal Power Bases; Some Observations." *Canadian Administrator,* 14, 7 (April 1975), pp. 1-5. EJ 115 902.

Certainly, one mark of effective leaders is that people follow them. Balderson questions, "Why do teachers comply (willingly or unwillingly) with advice or demands from principals?" Do effective leaders use the carrot or the stick or neither? In his attempt to find out, he collected data from 426 teachers in a western Canadian urban school district.

Balderson began by defining five types of power: *personal* (based on personal qualities), *expert* (based on relevant expertise), *reward* (based on ability to bestow special benefits or help), *coercive* (based on ability to give punishment), and *legitimate* (based on position or status).

He then asked the teachers what kind of power they believed their principals used. Teachers in a majority of the district's schools perceived that the principal utilized a form of power based on expertise. Interestingly, the reward category was empty.

Most revealing of all was Balderson's correlation of principal expert power with a number of other teacher and principal characteristics. He found that schools with principals whose power appeared to rest on expertise also received high scores in teacher morale and satisfaction with principal performance. In these schools, principals appeared to favor (1) teachers doing an effective job helping students learn, (2) teachers experimenting with new ideas and techniques, and (3) teachers suggesting ideas to improve the school. Principals who were viewed as using coercive power scored low in all these areas.

Balderson concludes, "The data suggest that staff morale and commitment to the improvement of schools in this and other districts would increase if principals purposefully adopted administrative and supervisory practices based on expertise."

176 **Brainard, Edward.** *Individualizing Administrator Continuing Education. An Occasional Paper.* Denver: CFK, Ltd., 1973. 72 pages. ED 089 422.

"To perpetuate effective leadership a school district must provide a program whereby each of its administrators has an opportunity to participate in an individualized and continuous program of self-renewal." Thus Brainard introduces this individualized program for administrator inservice training. In this program, each administrator determines his or her own goals and needs for becoming a more effective leader, works out strategies to accomplish the goals, and integrates these strategies with actual school improvement projects. According to Brainard, the program results in a "better school and improved leadership abilities of the administrator."

The experience of forty-five school districts actually operating individualized continuing education programs is summarized here. Central to the program is membership in a collegial team of administrators involved in similar activities. Usually, team members join together in seminars on topics of common interest. Most of these teams have concentrated on the development of

management skills such as conducting needs assessments, defining goals and objectives for school improvement projects, improving communication with teachers and students, assessing school climate, and developing accountability skills.

Brainard includes thorough step-by-step instructions for establishing an administrator continuing education program for all types of administrators. A form is included for setting down institutional and personal goal statements, relevant activities and strategies for reaching goals, and evaluation procedures.

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177 **Dunifon, William S.** "The Dimensions of Educational Leadership amid the Unfamiliar." Paper presented at the Canadian School Trustees' Association Congress on Education, Toronto, June 1978. 20 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

"We are experiencing more than a haunting sense of doubt about the capabilities of our 'leaders'," observes Dunifon. Traditional leadership approaches no longer work. Some leaders are spending a quarter or more of their time in leadership training activities designed to reinstate their lost leadership effectiveness.

The reason? Dunifon maintains that leaders today do not understand that leadership does not exist in a vacuum. It is, instead, inextricably entwined with particular characteristics of followers, organizations, and even leaders themselves.

For one thing, to lead effectively leaders must understand the social, economic, and political climate. In education, if money is tight or if the public is clamoring for more emphasis on basic skills or high test scores, certain kinds of leadership behaviors are called for.

Too, the effective leader considers the needs of the individuals in the organization, particularly their need for structure and control. At the same time, leaders must consider their own needs. Poor leader mental health and ultimately poor organizational health result when a leader tries to use a style that is incompatible with his or her own personal needs.

Yet another consideration in determining an appropriate leadership approach is the particular task at hand. Emergency situations or projects with tight deadlines may require more autocratic approaches to leadership.

Dunifon presents a continuum of leadership styles from which a leader can choose. This continuum ranges from autocratic through democratic to "abdiocratic" in which a person in a leader position abdicates his or her role entirely. Although Dunifon does not say so explicitly, it is clear that to him the best leadership approaches lie in the middle of the continuum.

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178 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Leadership: Improving Its Effectiveness. Research Action Brief.* Eugene: University of Oregon, 1978. 4 pages. ED 147 920.

This review, written for an audience of secondary school principals, discusses in concise, readable language some of the empirical research that has been done concerning effective school leadership.

The discussion focuses on three familiar aspects of leadership effectiveness. One section considers Fiedler's observation that "effective leadership means having the right person in the right situation." A leader performs best when meaningfully challenged by the position, according to Fiedler; "a safe, secure, and well-ordered environment may not always be a productive one."

A second section focuses on Kunz and Hoy's conclusion that teachers are most willing to accept the professional leadership of principals who are high in *initiating structure* (the ability to establish order in the school environment) and *consideration* (the ability to develop good relations with subordinates). Of the two, though, "maintaining a well-ordered school is apparently more desirable than maintaining a friendly one."

The study then examines decision-making. One way principals can become more effective leaders is by implementing programs of participative decision-making (PDM). Evidence indicates that involving more people in decision-making can lead to the making of better, more correct problem-solving decisions. In addition, PDM can increase the satisfaction of those who become involved in decision-making. However, making decisions by majority vote can become competitive and frustrating for participants and should, therefore, probably be avoided. "For many schools . . . a centralist PDM program may be most desirable, with the principal, as group leader, soliciting the opinions and insights of collaborators but retaining final decisional authority.

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179 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *Managerial Control: A Middle Way. Research Action Brief.* Eugene: University of Oregon, 1978. 4 pages. ED 155 775.

Borrowing a phrase from Tannenbaum, this review points to a "middle way" of managerial control "between rigid hierarchical control and chaotic decentralization." In language that is clear and simple, yet never simplistic, the report integrates the findings of six empirical research studies into a coherent thesis on the nature of managerial power.

Traditional decision-making systems are based on the assumption that power in an organization is finite—"a limited entity to be divided like a pie among dinner guests." The research cited here, however, suggests that this finite view of power is inadequate. Instead, as in the parable of the loaves and the fishes, the more power is shared, the more there is to go around.

Tannenbaum, for instance, discovered that supervisors who allow themselves to be influenced by their subordinates have more influence over subordinates. Thus, these supervisors, by sharing their power, become more powerful. Bachman, Smith, and Slesinger likewise found that the more control salesmen had over their office manager, the more control the manager had over them. Hornstein, on the other hand, found that when teachers believe their principals have a lot of influence over what goes on in schools, these teachers also perceive their own influence to be high.

The results from these and other studies indicate that for leaders to be truly effective they must share power and yet not be afraid to exercise influence. The review concludes with implications aimed

68 particularly at school principals: "Principals should not fear the sharing of power. Nor should they be afraid that higher levels of control will kill employee satisfaction. In a paradoxical system where power and control can grow in mutual abundance, the principal should not fear being left out at the power table."

180 **Fiedler, Fred E.** *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. McGraw-Hill Series in Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967. 310 pages. ED 015 354.

Despite its age, this is one of the most important and influential studies yet made of its subject. The heart of the work is Fiedler's Contingency Theory, which holds that leadership effectiveness is contingent on a good match between an individual's leadership style and the needs of a situation.

The Contingency Theory identifies two leadership styles. Human relations-oriented leaders are motivated primarily by a desire for good interpersonal relations with their subordinates. Task-oriented leaders are most concerned with success in carrying out the task at hand.

The key variable in determining which style fits the needs of a situation is the favorability of that situation. Favorability is affected by the quality of leader-member relations in a group, the degree to which a group's task is structured, and the formal power the leader derives from occupying his or her position. In general, a situation becomes more favorable as leader-member relations improve, the task becomes more structured, and the leader's position power increases. According to the Contingency Theory, task-oriented leaders perform best in very favorable or unfavorable situations, while human relations-oriented leaders are more effective in moderately favorable situations.

The greatest value of the Contingency Theory may well be its success in showing that the needs of a specific situation, as well as the qualities of a leader, can influence leadership effectiveness.

181 **Gorton, Richard A.,** and **McIntyre, Kenneth E.** *The Senior High School Principalship. Volume II: The Effective Principal.* Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1978. 90 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

Rather than theorizing about leadership effectiveness, Gorton and McIntyre and their research team sought out sixty effective principals and tried to determine some of the secrets of their success. The researchers requested nominations from directors of secondary education in the departments of public instruction in every state to make up a list of effective administrators whose names are not revealed in the report and, in fact, are guarded with utmost secrecy. Interviewers asked these outstanding administrators and their coworkers questions about the administrators' personal, professional, and school characteristics, about the nature of their jobs, and about their problem-solving techniques.

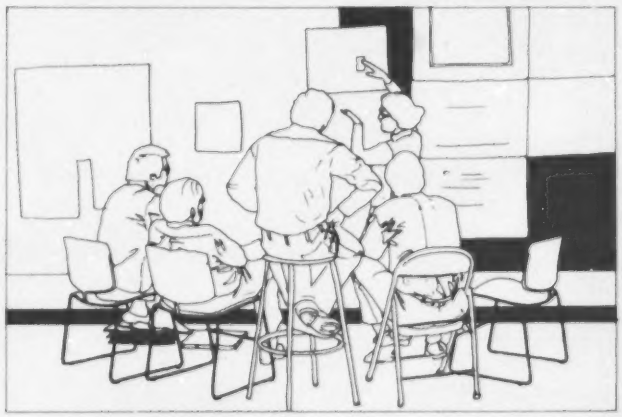
The result is an extremely well-written and, at times, provocative report. Substantiating theorists on leadership style, the authors found no particular personal qualities or leadership style unique to effective administrators. Instead, they found that effective administrators are often those in the most favorable situations. They have strong support from students, teachers, and parents. They have "a reasonable amount of autonomy." And they have "a reasonable amount of resources."

Other findings, however, indicate that principals' effectiveness is a result of more than just the good luck of finding themselves in a nurturing environment. As Gorton and McIntyre put it "These principals are also very people oriented, their strongest asset being an ability to work with different kinds of people having various needs, interests, and expectations."

Two additional findings are of note. The first is that many principals interviewed complained about "the excessive amount of paper work demanded of them and their required attendance at district meetings." The second (highlighted in *Time* magazine as the most disturbing feature of a report they believed to be of national interest) is that a majority of effective principals are not expecting to stay in the principalship. They hope to move either to other administrative positions or out of education altogether.

182 **Halverson, Don E.** *Time Management. Revised.* Redwood City, California: San Mateo County Board of Education, 1978. 44 pages. ED 154 476.

Many administrators are prevented from being real leaders simply because they have too much to do. Halverson has collected numerous good suggestions to help educational administrators use time more effectively. With no unnecessary verbiage, he presents these tips in the form of short, well-organized lists that can be quickly and easily absorbed.



Interspersed among these lists are thought-provoking quotes on the value and proper use of time from authors ranging from Callisthenes ("We can either use the passing hours to implement our plans, realize our dreams, strengthen our foundations, or we may treat these hours with unthinking indifference, the moments slipping through our fingers like fine sand on the shore") to

Napoleon ("The reason I beat the Austrians is that they did not know the value of five minutes").

Halverson lists some of the most basic rules for managing time effectively: determine the goals and objectives in all major aspects of your life; devote at least 25 percent of your work week to personal improvement in your managerial role; block out a large amount of time daily for planning in your major management areas; know and keep track of where your time goes; prioritize your time to match your high-level objectives; and plan for and utilize basic time management tools such as proper delegation, role definition, and secretary development.

Included in the appendix are forms and checklists for setting activity priorities, drawing up a weekly schedule, and monitoring time management effectiveness.

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183 **Knoop, Robert,** and **O'Reilly, Robert.** *Participative Decision Making in Curriculum.* 1975. 10 pages. ED 102 684.

"Where does the principal enter the decision making process?" ask the authors of this report. They then proceed to explain how 192 respondent teachers answered the question of how they wanted principals to enter the decision-making process.

Knoop and O'Reilly present enlightening data in an area central to leadership effectiveness—decision-making. They found that teachers wanted neither to have sole responsibility for curricular decision-making nor to have the principal make all the decisions for them. Rather they wanted to participate in decision-making in a way that would ensure their ideas being considered. Most teachers queried preferred that decisions be made either by majority vote of teachers and principals or by the principal with a great deal of input by teachers.

Knoop and O'Reilly use these findings to refute Myers's (see elsewhere in this chapter) contention that the principal ought to be merely a facilitator. According to these authors, Myers maintains that a principal's role in decision-making ought to be only to ensure that proper procedures are followed and that demands of teachers and community residents are listened to. The data suggest that Myers's sort of powerless facilitator is not really what teachers want at all. Neither do they want a dictator. Instead, "results indicated that teachers desired to have their ideas considered rather than make decisions themselves."

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184 **Kunz, Daniel W.,** and **Hoy, Wayne K.** "Leadership Style of Principals and the Professional Zone of Acceptance of Teachers." *Educational Administration Quarterly,* 12, 3 (Fall 1976), pp. 49-64. EJ 150 169.

Kunz and Hoy describe their study of how certain types of behavior are related to leadership effectiveness. The study is interesting for its methods, as well as its conclusions. As their measure of a leader's effectiveness, the authors used the willingness of a subordinate "to hold in abeyance his own criteria for making decisions and to comply with orders from superiors."

Teachers will not respond identically to all types of administrative directives. However, the amount of administrative control teachers are willing to accept—the size of their "zone of acceptance"—is relatively uniform in two areas. Most teachers consider decisions concerning matters of organizational maintenance, such as meeting deadlines or making accurate reports, to be a legitimate concern of administrators. Conversely, most teachers and even many administrators feel that administrators should have very little control over matters in the personal domain, specifically "things that either have little direct relevance to the organization and/or are extremely personal."

There is, however, no such agreement among teachers about the zone of acceptance in matters of professional judgment such as willingness to experiment or techniques for evaluating pupils. This led the authors to suggest that the size of the professional zone of acceptance of most teachers in a school might be a good indicator of the principal's effectiveness as a leader.

Two types of behavior are most often associated with effective leadership. The first, *initiating structure,* includes establishing "well-defined patterns of organization, avenues of communication, and methods of procedure." The second, *consideration,* refers to "friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff."

Kunz and Hoy measured how each of these types of behavior affected the size of teachers' professional zone of acceptance. They found the largest zones of acceptance among teachers whose principals were high in both initiating structure and consideration. Further, the two qualities frequently went together. However, the authors found that, of the two, "initiating structure was the overriding factor which was related to the professional zone of acceptance of the teacher."

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185 **Mazzarella, Jo Ann.** *Leadership Effectiveness. School Management Digest, Number 16. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 44.* Burlingame, California; and Eugene: Association of California School Administrators; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1978. 46 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

Looking at leadership effectiveness from many different angles, this digest highlights current theories, research, and opinions on leadership effectiveness. Mazzarella touches on some of the best ideas on the topic from over thirty authors. She integrates these insights with lively quotes and opinions taken from telephone interviews with a dozen practicing effective administrators. Warning that there are no magical formulas, Mazzarella concludes that leadership effectiveness appears to center around three requirements: "an appropriate leadership style, effective decision-making structures, and a healthy educational climate that fosters good relationships with staff, students, and community."

Before discussing what makes effectiveness possible, the author begins by asking, "What makes it so difficult?" She answers, "Many administrators today feel severely crippled by a plethora of paperwork and a lack of power, preparation, time, and resources."

70 Solutions to some of these problems include more assistance, time-management techniques, leadership training programs, and support from parents, community, staff, and administration. All are discussed, with citations for obtaining further information.

Mazzarella notes that improving school climate has been identified as an important facet of leadership effectiveness. She summarizes the opinion of educators who hold that "if administrators can create a healthy climate or atmosphere, then support from subordinates can be easily gained." Decision-making structures too are an important basis of leadership effectiveness. Mazzarella cites a number of researchers and practicing administrators who have concluded that participative decision-making is a crucial component to being an effective leader.

Leadership style (seen by some as the only important prerequisite to leadership effectiveness) is a third facet of effectiveness. "Most research on leadership style confirms administrators' experience. To be effective leaders, administrators must be both relationship-oriented and task-oriented; they must work well with people, and they must be able to get things done."

186 **Myers, Donald A.** "The Chautauqua Papers: A Dissent." *National Elementary Principal,* 54, 1 (September/October 1974), pp. 18-26. EJ 104 149.

Despite his article's title, Myers does not merely dissent from the prevailing opinion that the principal is the critical person in contemporary education; he asserts its opposite: "the principal is, and will remain, a functionary rather than a leader." Further, this is true of almost all principals, since "the position, not the person, largely dictates the principal's status as functionary." A variety of societal, organizational, and sociological-psychological factors "severely constrain the actions and decision-making power of today's principal."

The functions of a public school are relatively permanent and well defined; its policies are established so that it will be compatible with other schools in its district and across the nation. As a result, the principal has neither the time, the ability, the power, nor the mandate to make substantial changes in a school.

In addition, a variety of organizational factors limit the principal's power. The most important of these is the rise of teacher organizations, which evidently seek "to restructure the educational system entirely." The principal has little power over teachers; he does not hire, fire, or control salaries. "He is, in short, powerless to either reward or punish." The rise of both collective bargaining and professionalism have combined to make the role of the principal an increasingly marginal one—a mediator rather than a leader.

Finally, evidence suggests that even when a principal does succeed in introducing changes, those changes may not be of much value in improving a school.

187 **Sexton, Michael J.,** and **Switzer, Karen Dawn Dill.** "The Time Management Ladder." *Educational Leadership,* 35, 6 (March 1978), pp. 482-83, 485-86. EJ 175 684.

Differentiating between a mere educational manager and an educational leader, Sexton and Switzer offer suggestions to help "supervisors and principals" move "up the time management ladder" to become true educational leaders. Sexton and Switzer see one critical difference between educational managers and educational leaders: how they use their time. "The leaders use time to their own advantage."

The authors identify three levels of administrator tasks: (1) professional and goal functions, (2) critical or crisis functions, and (3) maintenance functions. At the top of the ladder are "success seekers" and effective leaders; at the bottom are mere "failure avoiders" and "maintainers of the status quo." The administrator who spends too much time at levels two and three will never make it up the time-management ladder.

Sexton and Switzer have identified "the most common pitfalls of time-wasting" for administrators. These include "number three" type telephone interruptions, any phone conversations longer than five minutes, ineffective delegation of duties, trying to do too much, and visitors who drop in with "number three" priorities.

As a prime example of how educational leaders ought to be spending their time, "maintaining high visibility" is suggested as an important number-one-level activity. "Supervisors who insulate themselves from teachers and students will not be able to stay in touch with the reality of the school."

The article includes a "Time Management Weekly Log" for administrators to log how time is spent and classify each activity by level of importance. They suggest that such tabulation for one week is the only way to get a clear idea of how time is really spent.

188 **Spiess, Jack.** "Concepts of Leadership." 1975. 15 pages. ED 102 680.

This document is a general survey of what is known about leadership. Despite an abundance of literature on the subject, some aspects of leadership are still surrounded by confusion and uncertainty. The author finds, for example, that "very few of the numerous lists of leadership traits have many items in common." Experts cannot even agree about the relationships between a leader's effectiveness and his or her "chronological age, height, weight, physique, energy, appearance, dominance, self-sufficiency, emotional control, and extroversion-introversion."

These facts suggest that it is not simply the traits of the potential leader, but how well they are suited to the needs of a specific situation, that determine how successful the leader will be. Because effective leadership does vary with different situations, all people possess some leadership capabilities. While nearly everyone has what it takes to be an effective leader in some situations, almost no one can lead effectively in all situations.

Evidently, the effective leader should be able to perform two primary functions. The first, facilitating goal achievement, is the leader's success in helping the group accomplish the task at hand. The second leadership function, group maintenance, is the leader's ability to maintain good interpersonal relations within the group. Both functions are instrumental in effective leadership, though the relative importance of each will vary according to the situation.

189 **Tye, Kenneth A.** "The Times They Are a Changin' for School Principals." *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 7, 1 (October 1977), pp. 4-7. EJ 172 935.

This article discusses some of the ways in which the professional role of the school principal is changing in contemporary education. Today's schools face problems different from those of the past. In general, these new problems, complex and without easy solutions, are combining to make the principal "the critical person in the educational process."

Tye suggests that it is important, therefore, to distinguish between two roles the principal may take: an administrator (oriented primarily toward maintaining the status quo) and a leader (functioning as an agent of change and growth). Most of today's principals have been selected and trained to serve as administrators, but education might be better served by "principals who define themselves and are defined by others as leaders."

Tye emphasizes three areas where a principal's leadership is particularly important: goal attainment, human processes, and the school's sociopolitical context. Goal attainment is the school's success in doing its job of educating. Human processes are the interpersonal relationships and interactions within a school. A principal attends to a school's sociopolitical context by understanding politics and recognizing how a school fits the needs of the larger society it serves. A fourth dimension of leadership, perhaps the most important of all, is the principal's self-awareness, the ability to assess—realistically—his or her own strengths and weaknesses.

190 **Utz, Robert T.** "Principal Leadership Styles and Effectiveness as Perceived by Teachers." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1972. 11 pages. ED 064 240.

Utz reports on the findings of a survey of how experienced teachers evaluated school principals. Subjects were first asked to characterize the overall performance of their principals on a scale ranging from "excellent" to "poor." At the same time, the teachers also evaluated principals according to the levels of concern they showed for "production" and for "people." The results, as expected, showed that principals rated as "excellent" had "significantly higher mean scores . . . in both the 'Production' and 'People' dimensions than did principals ranked in each succeeding lower category."

Survey responses also made it possible for the author to develop profiles of "excellent" and "below average/poor" principals. An excellent principal is characterized by direct interaction with teachers—orienting new teachers, soliciting a wide range of opinions before making policy decisions, and evaluating teachers' performance honestly, emphasizing suggestions for how to improve. In short, an effective principal is "respected and trusted by the teacher and is seen as one who cooperates with the teacher in getting the job done."

Conversely, the lowest-ranked principals tended to be much less involved with their teachers, providing minimal orientation for new teachers, utilizing little or no teacher input in program planning, and seldom evaluating teacher performance.

EA 011 113

ED163633

13 The Management Team

191 **Boles, Harold W.** "An Administrative Team?" *Journal of Educational Administration,* 13, 2 (October 1975), pp. 73-80. EJ 134 517.

In this report on the management team in one Michigan school district, Boles cites a situation that is all too common. His report reveals that the management team existed in name only. The term "administrative team" was being "applied to periodic meetings of individuals who were in no sense a team." While the team included principals and assistant principals, teacher requests for participation on the team were never acted on. Meetings were not convened along carefully prepared agendas, and items of interest to only a few members were often discussed in the presence of the entire committee. The word "policy" was often used to refer to things that were clearly not policy. The consideration of goals, philosophy, and curriculum was almost totally omitted.

This apparent confusion concerning areas of authority and responsibility was corroborated by Boles' testing instrument. He discovered that there was no consistency in terms of the expectations members of the team held for each other. In only one case was the individual's self-evaluation the same as the other members' evaluations of him.

Boles concludes that the team concept and the idea of management by objectives had been instituted in this case without being clearly understood. Members of this team were not receiving the necessary feedback concerning their performance, and they were unsure what behaviors to expect from others on the team. Boles recommends the use of his questionnaire to gauge performance expectations and to provide feedback.

192 **Burk, James M.** "Developing an Effective Board-Administrative Team." Paper presented at the National School Boards Association annual meeting, Houston, March 1977. 10 pages. ED 137 981.

"I believe the local school board, superintendent, principals, and supervisors must work closely together as a team to meet the complex challenges of education today." Burk also strongly believes that the organization of administrators into bargaining collectives or unions seriously threatens this integration of management by setting the administrators apart as a block.

That collective bargaining is an increasingly popular idea among administrators is well documented by Burk. According to a recent NASSP survey, 50 percent of the association's membership favor collective bargaining for principals, and almost one-third are already organized into collectives (*Educators Negotiating Service,* February 15, 1977).

Burk is a member of a school board that has taken positive steps toward involving administrators and supervisors in policy decisions. The latest development is the creation by the board of two committees, composed of both board members and administrators.

The procedural committee's purpose is to establish an objective, open-minded dialogue between the board and the administrative staff. Discussion includes such concerns as the extent of administration involvement in decision-making, the mutual

identification of problems and issues, and the establishment of objectives and goals.

The economic committee's purpose is to discuss salary plans and fringe benefits. This separation of discussion topics has helped alleviate problems encountered at former meetings at which salary discussion was mixed with discussion of the overall operation of the school system.

193 **Coccia, Joseph A.** "Point. Principals: Not Middle Management," and **Barea, Norman.** "Counterpoint. Principals—Yes, They Are Management." *NASSP Bulletin*, 61, 405 (January 1977), pp. 79-84. EJ 158 823 and 158 824.

One problem inhibiting the development of the management team is the question of the principal's role. Is the principal middle management or is the principal more properly a teacher? This is perhaps the single most important issue facing the district that wants to implement a management team.

Coccia argues that the reclassification of "principals as middle management is of recent vintage." They are considered team members only when administrators find it convenient. While Coccia acknowledges that the team feeds an instinctive need for "identity and status," the principal should be regarded as "the master teacher" and should be allowed to "be part of teacher organizations and should have representation on teacher bargaining units." Two benefits would accrue to principals in teacher unions. First, principals would want what is best for their staff, and their organizations would function better. Second, teachers might be less anxious in bargaining sessions to divest principals of their powers.

Barea argues that while many of the prerogatives principals once held are now formalized by a negotiated contract, the fact remains that the tasks enumerated in the agreement are "clearly managerial." In Michigan, for example, general school laws define the principal's duties. The principal is responsible for the operation and evaluation of educational programs. The principal advises on matters of promotion, discipline, scheduling, budgeting, and much more.

Only two courses are open to the principal, who now carries "more responsibility with less authority" than at any other time. Either the principal must be part of a management team that truly works or he must belong to a principals' organization that negotiates formally with the board. Barea sees no other alternatives. A principal who becomes part of a teaching organization risks becoming a "pawn of the faculty."

194 **Erickson, Kenneth A.,** and **Gmelch, Walter H.** *School Management Teams: Their Structure, Function, and Operation. ERS Monograph.* Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, 1977. 66 pages. ED 144 230.

A central administrator may share differing fractions of his power and responsibility with an administrative team, depending on his position on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. An insecure administrator may feel better with a traditional, hierarchical organization, characterized by centralized decision-making and external control of employees. On the other hand, an administrator whose basic needs are fulfilled and who is more concerned with esteem and self-realization may feel better about sharing decision-making with a team. Erickson and Gmelch encourage administrators to analyze themselves and gear the team organization to their needs, instead of blindly following a model unsuited to them.

The authors encourage a similar analysis of the needs and readiness of potential team members for a power sharing system. They include a number of useful figures and tables to help in this analysis.

The change from a traditional hierarchy to a management team is most often a slow process, requiring that team members be educated in the techniques of group process, decision-making, and goal identification.

A clear understanding of the decision-making process is particularly crucial to the success of a management team. There are four major modes of decision-making: chief administrator makes decision without team consultation; chief administrator makes decision with consultation; team majority makes decision; and team consensus makes decision. The authors stress that the method should vary according to the type of decision, the amount of time available, and other conditions. Consensus decisions, they note, are not always of higher quality than those made by individuals—it depends on the circumstances.

The authors discuss size and composition of teams and self-evaluation procedures for teams. They also outline three common team management models. Throughout, they emphasize that each organization should assess its own needs as well as the needs and characteristics of its administrative personnel before designing a management team.

195 **Erlandson, David A.** *Strengthening School Leadership.* Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers & Publishers, 1976. 123 pages. ED 147 969.

Most school administrators fit what Erlandson calls Model I behavior, as defined by Chris Argyris and Donald A. Schon. Without much input from others, the administrator defines problems, formulates goals, works out procedures, and then presents his approach to others in his organization. In effect he tries to sell his position, and others must either support or reject it. This results in a defensive relationship in which the administrator is isolated and information flow is hampered.

Model II behavior, on the other hand, is characterized by the joint development of a solution to a problem. The joint process helps separate persons and plans, so that a group can attack a plan without attacking a person.

The problem, of course, is in the transition from Model I behavior to Model II. Erlandson outlines a process to effect this transition through the administrative team concept.

In a workshop for administrators aimed at making this transition

74 (described in detail by Erlandson), one of the most useful techniques was role-playing. A person would role-play his antagonist while someone else played him. As a result, the person could feel the impact he was having on his antagonist. The author also suggests bringing in an outside consultant skilled in group process techniques to help in the transition.

Often a team will fail to consider a broad range of alternative goals, due to a dominant team member operating according to Model I patterns, or due simply to the difficulty of the task. Recently, however, several processes have been developed for systematically generating alternatives. Erlandson describes fully one of these processes, the Delphi technique, as a means of bypassing the negative influence of Model I behavior.

Once goals are chosen, it is necessary to make decisions for achieving these goals, as well as for regularly reexamining the goals and progress toward them. Erlandson explains in detail the "CIPP Model of Evaluation" originated by Daniel Stufflebeam, a highly structured system of decision-making and goal evaluation. He also outlines a structured program for continual organizational analysis and reform.

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196 **Frucci, John.** "The Principal as a Key Member of the Management Team." Paper presented at the National School Boards Association annual meeting, Houston, March 1977. 8 pages. ED 137 965.

All levels of the management team, from superintendent to assistant principals, must participate in the development of management policies and concepts. This approach, common in business, allows frontline administrators the opportunity for input into the total management process.

Frucci stresses that the role of each team member must be clearly defined, with particular attention to the interfaces between all areas and levels of management. Only when each member understands his role and the other members' roles can the management team concept work.

As an example of a working design, Frucci presents in its entirety the "Central Valley Administrative Team Model," which in turn is based on the RACI Model, a procedure in which *R*esponsibility, *A*pproval, *C*onsulting, and *I*nforming are clearly defined functions. Detailed rules define the procedure of policy-making from proposal to adoption, using the RACI designations.

Using this system, the team has developed several "management statements" concerning operations of the school system. It is important to realize, however, that in this model the school board retains ultimate authority for all school district policy, rules, and regulations proposed to it by the team.

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197 **Haines, Gerald L.** "The Management Team: Advocates for Kids. A High School Principal's Perspective." *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 6, 2 (November 1976), pp. 7-9. EJ 156 379.

While everyone recognizes that schools exist to provide for students, often the various needs of the staff, the organization, or the community interfere with these goals. Because school principals are often forced to react to front-burner issues, long-range planning and the goals of the organization may be neglected for the temporary issues. Only a true management team "can develop congruence between the needs of all the groups and direct them toward the common goal of student success." Under a system of team management, all groups have an area of clear authority, and everyone is a manager.

In an attempt to create a comprehensive system with the goal of developing "self-directing, self-motivating individuals" working for the common good, Pioneer High School in Whittier, California, planned and implemented a management team program over a four-year period. In 1973 the district sponsored a management workshop for board members, the central office staff, and principals. During the following two years, the high school wrote a "school achievement plan," which enumerated resources, specified goals, and generated job descriptions. A number of district workshops were sponsored, and as the plan progressed more people were involved in the process.

Haines lays the success of the plan to the fact that it was predicated on building the success and self-esteem of the subordinate. In addition, the plan was initiated at the board level.

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198 **Haynes, A. Ford, Jr.,** and **Garner, Arthur E.** "Sharing Administrative Decision Making." *Clearing House*, 51, 2 (October 1977), pp. 53-57. EJ 170 973.

Increased complexity and size of school districts since World War II, as well as citizen demand for more specialized services in their schools, have made administrative decision-making by a school board or principal alone an almost impossible task. The "management team" concept, in which decision-making is shared among all levels of the traditional school hierarchy, is one proposed solution to this problem.

Haynes and Garner cite many examples of research studies in industry showing that workers in production teams produce more and are more satisfied than workers in traditional, isolated, assembly-line positions. Other studies show that shared decision-making increases motivation to produce, as well as improves communication and the quality of decisions.

Similar research in schools shows that teamwork also improves the effectiveness of teachers and administrators. As the principal shares his or her leadership and the group defines common goals, teachers become more responsible and initiate more activities. The principal finds more acceptance for his ideas and receives higher ratings from teachers for professional leadership.

Currently, one person—the principal—must answer for a school's performance. The authors believe that accountability should be shared by the faculty. They propose initiating this responsibility through the formation of teacher teams that would collectively contract with a school board to provide their services, in the same way that administrative teams operate in business. Other methods might include paying faculties a bonus when as a whole they achieve certain set goals, or simply legally redefining teacher responsibility.

199 **Lieberman, Myron.** "The Administrative Team? It's an Invitation to Trouble." *American School Board Journal,* 164, 6 (June 1977), pp. 25-27, 46. EJ 160 475.

Lieberman believes that the role of staff on an administrative team should be strictly advisory, and not at all legislative. "The ultimate decisions often must be made by top management, and often of necessity they will conflict with the recommendations of middle-management." This view stems from Lieberman's definition of "administrative team" as standing for the general canons of school administration.

Lieberman takes a strong stand against the "anti-management" philosophies that permeate education today. Instead of offering long-term contracts to principals to keep them on top management's side, he suggests that "the way to encourage teamwork is to make job security for middle managers dependent upon their adherence to the policies of the board and top management."

When management is negotiating with a union, it is very important that management present a solid front, regardless of differences within the team. When an administrative team is involved, it is more likely that differences will be displayed, and the union may exploit these differences to win their concessions. There is room for disagreement, adds Lieberman, but once a district position is adopted, everyone on the management side should support it.

200 **McNally, Harold J.** "A Matter of Trust. The Administrative Team." *National Elementary Principal,* 53, 1 (November/December 1973), pp. 20-25. EJ 085 992.

The old hierarchial structure of school districts is giving way to the more democratic processes of collective bargaining and consultative decision-making. Specifically, the management team is one aspect of this new democratic feeling. As McNally defines it, the management team is not an informal social group or an "inner circle" without definitive status. Nor is any body that excludes principals consistent with the true idea of the team. Rather, it is a group recognized by the board and superintendent as part of the "formal administrative structure of the school system." The team includes central office staff and middle management in the schools and makes important decisions on policy and interpretation of policy.

To make the management team work, trust and open communication are essential. The role and responsibility of each team member must be clearly spelled out. McNally points to a study of a Michigan team that revealed much confusion and "role ambiguity" on the part of team members. Each team member should participate in decisions about roles and decisions about goal-setting. The team must also be evaluated regularly to maintain its effectiveness.

McNally does not believe that the team will necessarily make all the decisions in the district. But he does believe that its legitimate domain can include the team's salary and working conditions.

201 **Salmon, Paul B.** "The Administrative Team? It's a Step Forward for Schools." *American School Board Journal,* 164, 6 (June 1977), pp. 24, 26-27. EJ 160 474.

Salmon fully supports the team management concept, both on its own merits as a decision-making tool and as a means of preventing further unionization of middle managers. In this article, he offers several suggestions for ground rules and operational procedures for an administrative team.

Initially, the team approach should be written into board policy, and a team job description should be developed describing duties, responsibilities, authority, and relationships among team members.

A method for coping with disagreements between team members and superintendent must be established when the team first begins its work. The nature of this agreement will depend heavily on the superintendent. The superintendent may retain his "majority of one" status, he may seek mediation by a neutral third party, or he may allow presentation of the team's opinion at a board meeting. But Salmon emphasizes that the superintendent must not "structure the group so that there is one-way communication and power emanating from him."

Salmon suggests that each member of the team should be allowed to review proposed policies of the board of education *before* they are adopted, and then file an *Educational Impact Statement* with the superintendent. This would provide the board with valuable feedback on the possible consequences of proposed policies.

202 **Schmuck, Richard A.** "Development of Management Teamwork: National Overview." Paper presented at the Educational Managers Annual Academy, Wemme, Oregon, July 1974. 7 pages. ED 094 456.

76 Schmuck sees a paradox in modern institutional life. As life grows more complex, people become increasingly interdependent on each other. To be successful, an institution requires the collaboration of many individuals. But at the same time, individual diversity often works against collaborative interdependence. That is, employees need to speak for themselves, to feel their voices are heard concerning the issues that affect their lives. In traditional organizational structures, this human diversity and uniqueness are often squelched. But not so in team management, which in fact exploits individual talents and members' strengths to reach wise decisions. Key to the notion of the management team is that members hold "some degree of reciprocal influence over one another."

The advantages of the team are manifold. The increased input from all parts of the school district can give "an increased understanding of how the district structure works." Input from minority groups can increase the effectiveness of planning. Because collaboration in decision-making results in an "increased sense of psychological ownership in relation to managerial actions," a group decision is more likely to be fully implemented than a decision that is merely shuttled down from district headquarters.

The size of the team itself is crucial. It should be large enough to encompass representatives from all subsystems and still small enough for face-to-face discussions and collaboration. The team should typically not exceed 15 members. Large districts will have a series of teams with members in "link-pin" roles serving on the deliberations of at least two teams. Some teams are permanent, some are temporary.

The goal of team deliberations need not be 100 percent agreement. The goal is primarily that everyone understands the issue at hand, can paraphrase it, has a chance to air his or her feelings, and is at least willing not to sabotage the majority's decision.

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203 **Sharpe, Fenton.** *Trust—Key to Successful Management.* Eugene: Oregon School Study Council, University of Oregon. *OSSC Bulletin,* 19, 2 (October 1975). 23 pages. ED 113 827.

The concept of team management is attractive because members of the team "become more vitally involved in the planning and implementing processes" than they might in some other kind of organizational decision-making process. But the greatest drawback to the effective functioning of the team is the same one inherent in every large organization. That drawback is the lack of trust in everyday communications and interactions.

Sharpe writes that "trust is an act of willing dependence by one person upon another or group of others." This willing dependence involves a great deal of emotional risk, however. The risk is minimized in a hierarchical organizational structure in which decisions flow from the top down. A plethora of rules and regulations further protects members from risk by clearly specifying acceptable and unacceptable behaviors.

A refusal to share decision-making power implies that "ordinary participants in the enterprise cannot be trusted to exercise responsibility." Sharpe cites a study that reveals how a climate of mistrust affects worker and managerial attitudes. Communication becomes distorted, and there is less originality of thought, a fear of controversy, and greater emotional instability.

The responsibility for engendering trust lies with the educational leader who must learn to trust himself and others. He must be willing to delegate important decisions to other members of his team. With this increase in trust comes an increased effectiveness in problem-solving, increased emotional stability, and greater intellectual development.

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204 **Starr, Warren D.** "Forging the Administrative Team." *NASSP Bulletin,* 62, 414 (January 1978), pp. 16-20. EJ 171 506.

Most school administrators have had little training in group dynamics, team building, decision-making, and leadership. Starr recommends that administrators familiarize themselves with these "new tools," as well as look at working models, such as the administrative team in the Yakima (Washington) School District.

This school district uses a "position papers" process. A position paper is an agreement in writing between the chief administrator and the management team members that outlines specific procedures for working on and solving problems in any specific area of concern. Any team member can propose a topic for a position paper, after which the contents of the paper are worked out between the team and the chief administrator.

Starr gives as an example a position paper on administrative hiring. The "Opportunity" section of the paper covers the purpose of the paper and the philosophy of the hiring process, as well as defines "administrator." The "Proposal" section states, in detail, the actual rules and sequence of events in the hiring process. The "Evaluation" section outlines feedback procedures for evaluation of the hiring process.

After a year's use of this method, Starr notes a noticeable reduction in friction among team members. Consistency in procedure has bred trust and openness and has increased the credibility of both the chief administrator and the team members.

EA 011 114

14 Parent Evaluation of Schools

ED163634

205 **Almen, Roy.** *SEA Parent Opinion Survey—1974. Final Report.* Minneapolis: Southeast Alternatives Program, Minneapolis Public Schools, 1974. 79 pages. ED 115 683. 77

How can parents best be involved in the evaluation of schools? In the Southeast Alternatives (SEA) Program in Minneapolis, parent evaluation is only one part of a larger attempt to involve parents in all parts of the school program.

For the SEA Parent Opinion Survey, three schools were selected as sites to test "alternate school styles." Because of the experimental nature of the project, school officials wanted to maintain especially close contact with parents. Administrators regularly sought out individual parent's opinions as well as group opinions on issues. Parents served on advisory councils and policy boards, and they provided feedback by means of questionnaires and interviews.

The personal opinion questionnaire has become one of the most prevalent means of gathering evaluations of school programs. It can be distributed on a large scale for a rather small cost and can be used to solicit a great amount of diverse information. In the SEA survey, Almen reports that all parents received two questionnaires. The first, more general set, was the same for all parents; a second packet of questions pertained to the specific experimental school their children attended. Parents were asked to evaluate new programs as well as their children's progress. They were asked how they preferred to have their children's progress reported to them.

Perhaps as important as the information about the experimental programs were the opinions of parents concerning their own involvement in school policy. A majority of parents believed that their interests would be best served by an "elected group" that "participate[d] directly in making decisions." A majority of parents were satisfied with their opportunities for involvement. Forty percent had volunteered for duty in some capacity.

206 **Fedorko, Helen Therese,** and **Rhodes, Doris S.** "Cooperation Is the Key." *Momentum,* 7, 4 (December 1976), pp. 17-20. EJ 158 017.

Parent evaluation of schools cannot take place unless parents are brought into the round of activities that occur in the school. According to these authors, home and school attitudes are related and must be mutually reinforcing. Parents must be fully involved with their children's education, and teachers and schools must be geared to help parents "state the goals they have for their individual child."

Unfortunately, many conditions thwart this ideal close involvement. In many homes both parents work. More families than ever before are led by a single parent. In these homes, school activities must compete with a great many other responsibilities. But even when time does exist, many parents are intimidated by the school atmosphere. Likewise, teachers may feel the presence of the parent in the school or classroom as an intrusion into their domain.

The authors recommend a program in which parents can comfortably observe their children's teacher in the classroom.

78 Parents can observe "current methods of instruction and techniques of behavior control and classroom management." An informal discussion/information area could be provided for parents, and program directors could occasionally make presentations to parents on educational topics.

207 **Feldmesser, Robert A.,** and **McCready, Esther Ann.** *Information for Parents on School Evaluation.* Princeton, New Jersey: ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation, 1974. 7 pages. ED 099 432.

Early in their investigation of various guides written to help parents evaluate the quality of their schools, Feldmesser and McCready began to wonder "whether there is much genuine disagreement, at the non-technical level, about what a good school is." Much of the literature focuses on facilities, student-teacher ratios, school atmosphere, and test scores.

School districts themselves are generally ready to provide much of this statistical information. Several of the guides recommend that principals be used as sources of information about test scores, school policies, testing programs, and special education programs. Some of the guides under discussion provide evaluation forms that parents can ask principals to fill out. And almost invariably the guides recommend a personal visit to the school itself.

But the authors note that the evaluation guides all have a similar problem. Because none of this information is quantifiable, and because little or no information exists about the relationship between the quality of education and the variables of class size, buildings, or atmosphere, none of the guides specifies any priorities. That is, they fail to discuss what items might be traded off for others, since it is unlikely that any school will excel in all areas. Even the venerable school visit is of questionable value, since none of the guides offers a list of systematic observation procedures.

The authors conclude that none of these guides is sufficient "to enable the citizen to evaluate a school or school system, or even particular aspects of it."

208 **Ferguson, D. Hugh.** "Can Your School Survive a Parent Evaluation?" *National Elementary Principal,* 56, 4 (March/April 1977), pp. 71-73. EJ 157 047.

Unfortunately, the evaluation of schools often occurs in a heated political atmosphere. This was the case recently at the Central Middle School in Newark, Delaware, where Ferguson is principal. A group of well-educated, affluent parents, concerned about declining test scores, busing, and a number of other social issues, petitioned the school board for the right to evaluate the school and its staff.

The issues, as Ferguson reports, were familiar ones: the call to return to basics, too much free time, a lack of discipline and homework, and not enough classes for gifted students. Despite the unclear aims of the petitioning group and its own often contradictory goals, Ferguson thought that for the "school board to appear skeptical of those credentials would have been disastrous to a working relationship between parents and board members." The message from parents was "beyond reconciliation and impossible to sidestep."

So began a year-long evaluation of the school. From a general open meeting in which all parent opinion was solicited, a task force of one hundred volunteer parents, six teachers, and two district directors was selected. A university dean of education chaired the force.

Ferguson reports that his role as principal during this difficult year was to keep a low public profile and to maintain staff morale while the school was under scrutiny. Parents observed classes without prior notice. They often pressed teachers for simple answers to complex problems. Teachers needed reassurance that statements made in these situations "would not come back to haunt them in evaluations."

Ultimately, Central Middle School was praised by the task force. "Perhaps the greatest value derived from the study was a better understanding by educated, articulate parents who did not understand middle schools and were somewhat perplexed . . . by preadolescent children."

209 **Harrison, Charles H.** "How Specialists Match Schools and Executives." *Nation's Schools,* 90, 3 (September 1972), pp. 58-60. EJ 063 188.

Business executives in the process of relocating in a new community are often assisted in their search for a good school system by professional companies that keep accurate records of many school districts. The information these companies collect and the methods they use to collect it provide a helpful guide to evaluating school systems in general.

Area Consultants (AC), a New York City firm, bases its evaluations on the assumption that "the quality of a school system can be accurately determined from information about its high schools." They believe that "not only are educational aspirations of the community reflected in its high school . . . but more statistics can be obtained from a high school than from an elementary school."

What information does the firm collect? The company asks school districts to fill out a High School Data Form, which asks for sixteen facts, among them the number of grades in the high school, current enrollment, average number in a classroom, student-teacher ratio, percent of faculty with advanced degrees, number of guidance counselors, percent of students who continue to college, teachers' salaries, advanced placement subjects, and honors courses offered.

One specific piece of information AC uses in its evaluations is the number of periods taught per day by English teachers. "English is an important subject that demands much of the teacher because of the papers that must be reviewed and corrected. So the quality of instruction has to be related to the number of classes the English teacher teaches." More than four periods is considered too many.

Harrison's guide and his additional "Ten Questions" that school managers should be able to answer are primarily intended for use by professional, white-collar parents.

210 **Johnson, Bruce.** "Taping Parent Opinion." *Instructor*, 79, 7 (March 1970), pp. 144-45. EJ 015 356.

Of the many means schools have devised to seek out and make use of parent opinions about schools, Johnson reports on one of the most creative. At Stanley Elementary School in Tacoma, Washington, officials had a difficult time getting parents in this racially mixed, low-income neighborhood to voice their feelings about school affairs. They were generally intimidated both in private meetings with teachers and mass meetings with school board members.

To combat this situation, administrators at the school issued formal invitations to parents, followed by personal contacts, asking them to meet in "informal, round-table discussions on school programs." The discussions were scheduled in late afternoons and evenings so working parents could attend more easily.

At each meeting—with only three or four parents present—a school official gave a brief introduction, started a tape recorder, and left the parents alone. In this unstructured situation, they spoke freely about their concerns. Later the recordings were edited into a longer tape, studied, and recommendations were drawn from it.

Johnson wants to lay to rest the myth that low-income parents are not concerned about the education of their children. These parents were deeply concerned about a variety of issues. They wanted the schools to teach creativity, to encourage individualized instruction, and to promote racial harmony. Johnson believes, however, that parents in low-income neighborhoods do not need to be involved in programs *before* they are implemented because the parents are not familiar with many educational procedures.

211 **Johnson, Lary.** *A Survey of Parents of Students at Jordan Junior High School.* Minneapolis: Department of Research and Evaluation, Minneapolis Public Schools, 1974. 27 pages. ED 117 138.

When Minneapolis recently implemented a new desegregation/integration plan, the minority population of Jordan Junior High School nearly quadrupled in one year. To see how parents felt about the new integration policies and about the quality of education at Jordan, a sampling of parents in all racial groups was taken by the Minneapolis Public Schools Department of Research and Evaluation.

Parents were interviewed in their homes about three specific topics: "parent satisfaction with the educational program," "parent preference for the two kinds of pupil progress reporting systems used at Jordan," and "parent feelings about desegregation and its impact on their children." The survey consisted of twenty-five questions, for which parents could choose from four different responses, ranging from "very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied." After each question parents were encouraged to include comments, though less than half did. The final questions asked parents to relate negative and positive experiences their children went through as a result of the school boundary change.

The survey showed that parents "overall were satisfied with the educational programs" and with their children's progress in the specific areas of reading and math.

While it was not especially ambitious, the survey at Jordan provides an example of soliciting parent opinion on both very general and very specific topics. It is a good example of an evaluation procedure brought to bear on a localized problem.

212 **Middleton, M. A.** *An Evaluation of the Family Life Education Course at Eric Hamber Secondary School.* Vancouver, British Columbia: Education Services Group, Vancouver Board of School Trustees, 1975. 44 pages. ED 132 186.

By involving parents regularly in evaluations of school programs, administrators can anticipate problems and devise more informative, responsive courses for students. In the case of potentially controversial or sensitive subject matter (such as marriage, the family, and sex), it is extremely important to involve parents and to get their approval.

At the Eric Hamber Secondary School in Vancouver, British Columbia, program coordinators of the Family Life Education

80 Course surveyed parents and students. Questions concerned the appropriateness of subject matter, the general level at which subjects should be taught, and whether parental permission should be necessary to take the course. Participants were also asked to rate program objectives according to their importance.

While parents overwhelmingly approved of the course contents, they suggested the addition of material covering family budgeting and choosing a marriage partner.

The questionnaire is included in the report.

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213 **National Urban League.** *Parent Power and Public Schools: A Guide for Parent Advocacy.* New York: Education Division, 1972. 17 pages. ED 081 876.

Acting on the proposition that the "quality of our schools must not depend on the economic or racial quirk of fate imposed upon the neighborhood in which a child's parents happen to live," this Urban League handbook provides guidelines for low-income parents to judge the quality of their children's schools.

Like many guides for evaluating schools, the handbook recommends that parents visit classrooms and observe teachers. It asks parents to consider whether their children are treated with respect. Does the teacher make reasonable assignments? Are the lessons dull and repetitious or lively and interesting? The handbook urges parents to visit special classes and the library. They should inquire about testing facilities. Parents should insist that their children be fully tested, if necessary, outside of school.

For low-income parents the public schools can be a nightmare of bureaucracy and intimidation. For them, the question of school quality is more than pupil-teacher ratios, test scores, honor societies, and the qualities usually used to measure middle-class schools. The school is frequently seen as an adversary. The handbook advises that parents know and follow the school's legal guidelines. When visiting schools, parents are advised to take a friend for support and as a witness to the proceedings. One long section in the handbook is devoted to the legal intricacies of expulsion, truancy, and punishment.

The picture of a good school that emerges here is one in which parents are treated honestly and made to feel at home in the schools. They are treated with respect, and their grievances are handled openly and quickly.

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214 **Riles, Wilson C.** "ECE in California Passes Its First Tests." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 57, 1 (September 1975), pp. 3-7. EJ 122 522.

The Early Childhood Education (ECE) program in California is an attempt to restructure the K-3 program. It is characterized by a low pupil-teacher ratio, individual instruction, and parental involvement. ECE has no categorical programing. Each child is treated as an individual learner.

A unique aspect of the ECE program is the way parents are involved functionally. They serve on ECE advisory committees at each school. They help prepare instructional materials, and they work with students in a one-to-one relationship in the classroom. Each parent brings a different cultural background, pursuits, and interests to the school.

Riles acknowledges that it is difficult to move parents into the program. In addition to the traditional parent apathy, one must contend with the fact of working parents. When parents are found, they must first be educated into the program. To provide initial training, the district offers seminars for the parents either in the classroom or in mobile units. As part of their training they observe children in the classroom. They work together in groups and study educational materials.

Many of the concepts Riles proposes have become state policy through their incorporation in A.B. 65, which recently passed the California legislature.

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215 **Thomas, M. Donald.** "How to Recognize a Gem of a School When You See One." *American School Board Journal,* 162, 3 (March 1975), pp. 27-30. EJ 112 493.

The habit of measuring a school's quality in terms of its hardware, software, budget, course selection lists, the number of books per child, expenditure per child, and student-staff ratio is "suspect, if not downright worthless," Thomas asserts. Such indicators tell us merely "how rich a school district is, not how good its schools are." Thomas believes that only the traditional school visit can reveal a school's quality. He offers six questions that the visit should answer.

What are the school's basic purposes? School principals and teachers should be able to articulate "exactly what the school is trying to achieve during a particular year." They should be able to state goals in terms of skills and achievement levels.

What degree of respect for children does the school exhibit? Good schools, says Thomas, respect all children, and "uniqueness is valued above sameness." Children are encouraged to choose their own reading materials.

What alternative in learning opportunities does the school offer? A good school recognizes that not all children learn in the same ways.

What kind of self-concept do the children exhibit? In good schools children are given "positive verbals" to live up to. A child who does badly on an exam is never criticized for being sloppy or lazy.

How positive are the attitudes exhibited in the school toward the school? In a good school, morale will be high. Principals and teachers will talk openly about their problems.

What kind of home-school relationships does the school maintain? Good schools plan regular conferences for parents and teachers. All statistical information pertaining to the child (psychological tests, health records, achievement tests) will be readily available to parents.

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15 Public Relations Programs

ED163635

81

216 **Bagin, Don.** *How to Start and Improve a P. R. Program.* Evanston, Illinois: National School Boards Association, 1975. 54 pages. ED 111 070.

Bagin's guide reflects the trend away from emphasis on traditional public relations to emphasis on communications. As he points out, the image of "public relations" has suffered considerably in recent years; "communications and community-relations are purer-sounding and usually gain more public acceptance." Although many experts in this field make the same substitution, it is rather refreshing to run across an author willing to make explicit the reason for this transition.

The change, however, is more than a mere semantic alteration. As Bagin makes clear, communications is a two-way process, and the new concept of public relations means improving communication both within and outside the school. The internal audience (teachers, support staff) is as important as the external audience (the public).

To achieve this goal of effective and total communication, a school district must take very seriously its public relations efforts. Bagin lists common mistakes made by districts trying to initiate a PR program, including naming a teacher to be PR director on a part-time basis, "regarding the newly appointed communications specialist as little more than a writer of news releases," and starting a PR program without carefully defined objectives. All these mistakes betoken a lack of commitment on behalf of district leaders, a lack that has caused some districts' attempts to backfire "so explosively that all possibility of doing the job right was negated for years."

To ensure that administrative personnel are sufficiently committed to improving communications with internal and external audiences, Bagin recommends making communications skills a prerequisite for hiring new administrators; he lists sample questions covering different communications areas to be asked of job interviewees. He also suggests that "communications successes and failures" be made part of annual administrator evaluation.

To ensure that district employees gain "specific skills and confidence in the area of school public relations," he recommends that practical materials and knowledgeable consultants be utilized in inservice sessions for all school personnel (including secretaries, custodians, and cafeteria workers). Bagin has appended a "Yellow Pages" of resources useful for inservice programs in school public relations.

217 **Bagin, Don; Grazian, Frank;** and **Harrison, Charles.** *PR for School Board Members. A Guide for Members of Boards of Education and School Administrators to Improve and Strengthen School Information Programs. Volume 8, AASA Executive Handbook Series.* Washington, D.C.; and Eugene, Oregon: American Association of School Administrators, and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1976. 74 pages. ED 127 656.

Although this handbook covers the expected and necessary PR

82 program components (such as district publications and the handling of communications in crisis situations), perhaps its most interesting chapters deal with information gathering. The authors examine, in a fair amount of detail, how the district can obtain feedback from the community and how the school board can obtain information necessary for decision-making from the administration and other sources.

Among the sources of community input discussed by Bagin, Grazian, and Harrison are citizens advisory committees ("one of the most important feedback mechanisms in school communications") and "key communicators." Key communicators are people in the community "who talk to every segment of the public." These leaders (official and unofficial) can "often provide an instant barometer of community feeling and opinion while formal polls and surveys are being developed." The board and administration can tap the key communicators' response to program and policy changes before making final decisions.

The authors bolster their presentation with pertinent observations from other writers and with descriptions of PR policies and PR director job descriptions from various school districts across the country.

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218 **Banach, William J.**, and **Barkelew, Ann H.** *The Banach-Barkelew Brainstorming Book*. Utica, Michigan: Synergy Group, 1976. 44 pages. ED 141 896.

Banach and Barkelew point out that even though the public possesses a rather large quantity of information about the schools (such as the price of school lunches, bus schedules, and vacation dates), the quality of such information leaves a lot to be desired. Parents and other community members simply do not understand what is being taught to children and why.

To improve information quality, schools need to devise a public relations program that incorporates four components: analyzing, planning, communicating, and evaluating. Banach and Barkelew, both PR consultants, believe that "disregard for this simple process is the main reason many educational communication programs fail." As they state, "Although the process appears trite, it works." And to get this process started, they advise educators to try their brainstorming strategy.

This strategy is intended to encourage district personnel (and parents and students) to pool ideas in order to come up with the best list of public relations innovations possible for their particular district. A step-by-step description of the brainstorming process—useful with groups as small as five or as large as several hundred—emphasizes the initial generation of a large quantity of ideas, then the selection and refinement of the best ideas. Appropriate forms and checklists are included for participants' use.

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219 **Gallagher, Donald R.** "In Your Public Relations . . . Is It Tell All . . . or Top Secret?" *School Business Affairs*, 41, 2 (February 1975), pp. 32-34. EJ 110 965.

"The school business office often does many routine things that hurt the school image internally and externally," according to Gallagher. Even though school business managers are not accustomed to thinking of themselves as public relations representatives, they should be apprised of the impact their actions have on public perceptions of the schools and on employees' perceptions of the school administration.

Gallagher lists suggestions intended to encourage business managers to "take the initiative and develop a program of communicating with the public and the employees." Business managers should avoid using educational and fiscal jargon when describing business procedures to the public; they should be able to interpret the school budget in terms that the public can understand. Inservice training for business staff members can help them to better fill their public relations roles.

To maintain smooth relations with local merchants and suppliers, the business manager should make sure that they are informed when and how the school will pay its bills. Gallagher recommends formation of an advisory council "of local citizens, business experts, and merchants" to provide the school with feedback and to encourage committee members to "relate the school business story to other members of the community.

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220 **Hilldrup, Robert P.** "The PR Aspects of School Violence." *Journal of Educational Communication*, 1, 2 (September-October 1975), pp. 8-11. EJ 137 969.

Hilldrup's article deals with a phenomenon that all school administrators find unpleasant and that many find themselves unable to cope with—violence in the schools. Hilldrup, public information director for the Richmond, Virginia, public schools, urges school administrators to remove their heads from the sand and to "look at the PR implications of school violence, to admit that it can happen in your school system and to start thinking negatively in order to do something positive about it."

To start with, PR directors should check with other school districts to see what plans they have devised for handling the public relations aspects of school violence. Once district personnel (especially school principals) are convinced of the importance of planning for unpleasant contingencies, the PR director should

encourage closer relations between school personnel and the police. Hilldrup advises making contact with a high ranking police officer "so that you can decide who will make what statement to whom after an incident happens."

Hilldrup's list of steps to be taken by the PR director once an incident of violence has occurred is commendably specific. For example, he suggests that media contacts in the time of crisis should be made "above the reporter level"—with the city editor or newseditor; "an advance understanding at the management level" can facilitate the accurate dissemination of information. Radio should be the first priority, since it reaches many people quickly. Trust and candor should characterize the PR director's interaction with radio stations, as well as with other news media. Reporters should not be allowed to interview pupils on school property; however, no attempt should be made to interfere with media interviewing when pupils are off the school grounds.

The most essential thing is to make sure that the public information director is immediately informed as soon as an incident occurs; as he states, "there is no way you can serve the schools or the media if you are the last to know."

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221 **Jones, J. William.** *Budget/Finance Campaigns: You Can't Afford to Lose.* Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1977. 97 pages. ED 140 428.

A school budget campaign calls for all the public relations and communication expertise that the district can muster. Jones's book makes it quite clear that the election will be lost unless the school district makes campaigning a well-planned, year-round activity. As he states, " 'Love-Me-Suddenly' campaigns simply don't work."

Jones lists certain "givens" necessary for school budget passage. First, "the issue to be voted on must be reasonable, as economical as humanly possible, and perhaps most important of all, salable." He emphasizes that the budget should be stated in terms comprehensible to the average voter, not in "fiscal jargon that only an accountant can understand."

Citizen involvement and credibility are absolutely essential. Voters must believe what the school district tells them about school financial needs, and the best way to foster belief is by involving citizens in both the budget formulating process and in the campaign.

Jones points out that each campaign must be tailored to the specific characteristics and needs of the individual community; there is no one formula for election success. He places special importance on the district's first announcement of the campaign, which sets the tone for all campaign activities that follow. And he stresses that the district must honestly believe that it can win its budget election or it shouldn't "get on the ballot in the first place."

Jones's book will be of special interest to administrators in districts where budgets have been defeated in the past, since he not only includes suggestions from PR experts, but also summarizes the experiences of districts that have waged successful finance campaigns.

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222 **Jones, J. William.** *Building Public Confidence for Your Schools. A Sourcebook of Proven PR Practices.* Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association. 1978. 225 pages. ED 150 725.

Jones begins this comprehensive guide to the development of effective school public relations programs with a brief discussion of the need for viable public relations work in schools. Public confidence in education is low in spite of improvements in education, a discrepancy that points to the necessity for schools to communicate their positive accomplishments to their communities.

A systematic elaboration of how to do that makes up the rest of the book. Three themes are emphasized throughout: planning, open communication, and community involvement. All are said to be essential in each step of the process.

The first step is to find out what the district's patrons think and know about the schools. Public opinion surveys are the best way to do that. The key to effective surveys is that they truly survey all areas of the district. Also, an annual survey, though expensive, is very effective in keeping districts in touch with changes in public opinion.

Once the district knows what its people think, it can begin to communicate effectively with them. Jones touches on literally dozens of ways this can be done. One of the most important aspects is effective public relations within the schools themselves. Teachers, staff, and students who are supportive of the schools and who have positive information to communicate to the outside world are invaluable to community confidence in the schools.

A key means of communicating within the schools is the production of an "inhouse" newsletter. The Dallas Independent School District puts one out daily and also distributes it to the local news media. It includes news and features informing readers of happenings within the district.

Jones gives detailed advice on how to handle special problems—ranging from violence, vandalism, and other discipline problems to the closing of venerable schools. In dealing with the latter problem, the Butler (Pennsylvania) Area Schools held a very successful "Nostalgia Night" for people who had attended the old Broad Street School during its seventy-nine years of existence. That diffused the opposition to the demolition of the school.

Honesty and openness are the best policies in dealing with discipline problems—as it is with all other areas, including labor disputes. Schools should never be perceived as trying to hide something.

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223 **Maguire, John W.** "Using Lunch Time for Effective Community Relations." *Clearing House.* Vol. 51, 1 (September 1977), pp. 5-6. EJ 169 083.

A very practical idea for busy secondary school principals who want to improve school-community relations is to utilize their lunch time. Increasingly, experts are emphasizing the need for schools to improve their image and gain friends in their communities. Unfortunately, most principals do not have the time available for extensive public relations work.

84 Maguire suggests that, with little sacrifice in time, principals can take valuable strides toward better community-school relations by inviting important community leaders to have lunch at the schools.

If the principal met with one guest per day, twice a week, he would have contact with seventy to eighty community leaders in a year's time.

The meeting would include lunch in either the student or faculty dining area, at which the guest would have a chance to meet important teachers and/or students. A short walking tour of the school plant would conclude the meeting.

The principal would strive to have the visitor gain a positive impression of the school. Should he succeed, he will gain an important and influential ally in the community.

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224 **National School Public Relations Association.** *Releasing Test Scores: Educational Assessment Programs, How to Tell the Public.* Arlington, Virginia: 1976. 67 pages. ED 119 322.

This NSPRA guide advises school leaders on how to handle a potentially unsettling event—the announcement of student achievement scores and educational assessment results. According to the authors, "At the local school district level, the quality of assessment communication to parents, staff members, community leaders and other important publics has been generally sub-par, even nonexistent." And yet, educational assessment programs and test scores are inextricably mixed with the whole issue of educational accountability.

Given the importance of assessment results, dissemination efforts must be carefully planned and executed at the individual school level, at the school district level, and at the state level. The authors advise local school systems to release their test scores as soon as they receive them, instead of waiting for the state department of education to do so. As they point out, "Advance release gives local school districts the advantage of initiative." It also "reduces the likelihood of public panic when the state report comes out."

Preparation for release of assessment results should begin before the tests are even administered. School administrators should realize that results will mean different things to different segments of the public and should tailor their presentation accordingly. Dissemination "should be persuasive in nature," meaning that it should be aimed at encouraging various publics to support the overall goal of educational improvement.

These suggestions, backed up by sample feedback surveys and other materials taken from Michigan's and Maryland's dissemination efforts, should aid administrators in minimizing difficulties that can arise when test results come out.

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225 **New York State School Boards Association.** *Communications Public Relations. A Handbook on School-Community Relations. Revised.* Albany, New York: 1973. 82 pages. ED 127 707.

"There is no need to ask if your board has a public relations program. *It does, whether you know it or not,*" according to the authors of this PR handbook. In the absence of a coherent PR policy, the school board performs this key function inadvertently and, usually, badly. The intent of this handbook is to assist school boards to substitute a well-planned and effectively executed PR program for one marked by inadvertence and happenstance.

Written for use by school board members, the handbook emphasizes the pivotal role the board plays in interpreting the community to the schools and, conversely, interpreting the schools to the community. Board members have great impact on public perceptions of the schools, according to the authors, because board members are school taxpayers like other citizens and are unpaid for their school service. What board members say "is heard differently and is apt to be credited more fully."

Even though the board, as "top management," should take the initiative in policy formation, PR objectives can be met only with the cooperation of "the entire school community." The authors favor the team approach over formation of a separate PR department, except in very large school districts. Teachers, and to a slightly lesser degree, other staff members (bus drivers, aides, secretaries) play an especially important role in the success or failure of any PR effort.

Once the school PR team is committed to improving school-community relations, the board can begin to develop "the most effective means of communication with the maximum number of people in the district." To achieve this goal, the board needs to be thoroughly acquainted with the concerns and information needs of the community (to be ascertained through an opinion survey), with the variety of media potentially available for disseminating information, and with the processes of producing, writing, and placing news so that the district maintains good relations with the press.

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226 **Ondrasik, Barbara P.** "Get Good Vibes from a Versatile House Organ." *Journal of Educational Communication,* 2, 2 (Winter 1977), pp. 12-21. EJ 160 469.

Good school public relations begin at home with a staff newsletter that answers the need of school employees to know what's going on, according to Ondrasik, editor of an award-winning school district newsletter. If employees are "to feel part of the team," they must be well informed. And if the school staff newsletter does a good job of informing, employees will more likely function as the district's "most valuable PR asset."

Ondrasik's article is filled with concrete suggestions on how (and how not) to write and publish a newsletter. She emphasizes that some form of effective staff newsletter can be assembled on even a very small budget. But she points out that "if your school system has 'no money' for a regular staff publication of some kind, then it really needs to rethink its priorities."

A staff newsletter's credibility is contingent on presentation of the truth, even about controversial matters. A newsletter should not function as a management mouthpiece. As Ondrasik cautions, "Avoid, at all costs, having your newsletter sound like a pontifical

edict issued from the isolated, insulated 'ivory tower'."

Noting that even some of the best school district newsletters tend to be "weak and wordy," Ondrasik counsels using plain English instead of educationese, keeping sentences and paragraphs short, condensing copy where possible, and carefully editing everything (even the superintendent's annual message to the troops).

Her article includes samples of newsletter front pages from school districts around the country.

227 **Powell, James.** "Work Stoppages and Public Relations: Winning the War of Words." *New Jersey School Leader*, 3, 4 (January/February 1975), pp. 19-20. EJ 112 415.

"Why do strikers generally capture public sentiment and support even though an objective look at the facts would lead observers to other conclusions?" Powell's answer to this question is that management teams do a poor job of communicating their positions to their communities—in other words, they fail at practicing elementary public relations throughout the collective bargaining process.

Powell advises the management side to carry out an ongoing communications program in order to ensure that "dependable information about school programs and policies" reaches the community. The program should build a climate of public trust in the board of education and the district administration.

The district leadership needs to select an effective communicator to represent management's side—a public relations representative who can act as "the board's field marshal." Powell suggests that this communicator try to work with the employee bargaining team's PR representative to develop joint news releases. But management-generated press releases should "carefully spell out the costs of the demands rejected by the board."

If the management team believes that the press is inadequately covering the board's position, it should purchase advertising space to convey its message. If unlawful behavior on behalf of strikers occurs, "public relations techniques," such as "quickly informing the news media of any union abuses and hiring a photographer to provide evidence" of disruption, can be effectively employed, according to Powell.

228 **Schaub, Alfred R.** "The Power of Poor Communications." *Journal of Educational Communication*, 1, 2 (September/October 1975), pp. 4-5. EJ 137 967.

A common assumption in the literature on organizational communication and public relations is that poor communications result from a lack of training—that if organization members only knew how to communicate effectively, they would automatically do so. Schaub, however, takes a different position. He believes that "faulty communications are often consciously or unconsciously engineered to assist individuals in their quest for power." He maintains that management personnel especially are quite skilled in communication techniques. Their failure to constructively utilize these skills arises from specific "power-related" problems that characterize organizational life in many institutions, including the schools.

According to Schaub, the most common cause of poor communications is "giving time and energy to more visible, self-serving activities" rather than to improving communications. Even though administrators frequently pay lip service to such improvement, the fact remains that the improvement process is time-consuming, that the payoff is hard to measure, and that improved communications frequently are "of more benefit and reward to others than ourselves."

Poor communications also result from a wish to avoid confrontation with others, especially when open communication would involve a discussion of (and disagreement over) controversial issues or personal values. A related problem is the tendency of managers to react negatively to employees who articulate problems. As Schaub states, "Bearers of bad news often lose their heads."

Schaub does believe that good communication and smooth organizational relations are possible. But he counsels managers not to be naive in their quest for improved communication. Schaub's observations offer a valuable (though not necessarily pleasant) counterpoint to the facile optimism evinced by many communications and PR writers.

229 **School Information and Research Service.** *Step-by-Step Guide to Effective PR for Large and Small School Districts. Special Bulletin No. 3.* Olympia, Washington: 1977. 50 pages. ED 133 879.

This collection of articles from public relations and communications journals details the process of effective public relations campaigns for school districts. The articles are all rather brief, and the collection seems to be somewhat lacking in unity and continuity. But a number of helpful ideas are given, as well as a basic outline of possible public relations activities.

Districtwide surveys are very important in the public relations process, but they can also be very expensive. The Apple Valley-Rosemount (Minnesota) School District alleviated a good deal of the expense by utilizing volunteers to hand deliver and pick up professionally prepared do-it-yourself surveys rather than hiring professional interviewers. The surveys were sent to randomly selected homes; use of the volunteers ensured a total response.

School finance publications are a key aspect of developing a positive attitude on the part of the taxpayers regarding school levy proposals. They should emphasize two things—what happens to the instructional dollar (instead of focusing on areas that take a smaller percentage of the costs) and community use of school facilities, especially those being proposed.

Another idea is that of having teachers and principals call parents to compliment their children. The calls can be used to mention significant achievements by the children or simply improvement in behavior and/or classwork. The callers should be given a list of guidelines including the objectives for the calls, and they should be provided with a private, convenient place from where they can call the parents.

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16 Reduction in Force

ED163636

230 **Custis, Jerry.** "Staff Cuts: Maybe They're Inevitable but They Don't Have to Be Bloody." *Updating School Board Policies,* 9, 3 (March 1978), pp. 1-4. EJ 175 694.

The key to smooth staff reduction is a clear, well-designed board policy on reduction in force (RIF), states Custis. The RIF policy should include the criteria that will be used in judging who will be laid off, whether it be seniority or quality of instruction or both. Also included should be the specific rights of laid-off teachers, such as the degree to which they can keep fringe benefits, and their rights to "bump" substitute teachers.

In addition, the board must decide both the role of the teacher association in the RIF procedures and how to continue to comply with affirmative action mandates. The official RIF policy should then be drafted with the help of a lawyer to ensure that it complies with state law and due process requirements.

Custis also outlines several pitfalls that boards should avoid in creating an RIF policy. First, vagueness should be avoided—the reasons for a person's place on an RIF list should be clear to prevent lawsuits challenging the layoff list. At the same time, exact deadlines for personnel action should be avoided, if possible, to allow flexibility should complications arise. Boards should also avoid making the promise that they will do everything they can to avoid staff cuts, because this promise can also be challenged in court.

Custis also recommends that boards "think carefully before allowing RIF policies and decisions to be subject to grievance, arbitration or fact-finding." Input from teacher organizations should come when the RIF policy is being formulated, not when it needs to be implemented.

231 **Downey, Gregg W.** "What School Boards Do When That Irresistible Force Called RIF Meets That Immovable Object Called Affirmative Action." *The American School Board Journal,* 163, 10 (October 1976), pp. 35-39. EJ 146 473.

Downey discusses in detail what most publications only briefly mention: the inevitable conflict staff reduction poses between the demands of seniority and affirmative action. The "last hired, first fired" seniority formula for reduction, viewed by many as the most objective and favored by teachers, will, he states, force districts to fire minority and women staff recently hired to achieve racial and sexual equity. The conflict of seniority and equity, he warns, "can pitch a school system into a turmoil of litigation and labor disputes.

Downey's survey of school system problems and policies offers some valuable suggestions for districts. One district, he reports, seems to have developed a workable reduction policy that balances the demands of seniority and equity. The district follows seniority in reducing staff until reduction will unduly hit affirmative action staff, at which time it takes special action to shield them. It must maintain the percentage of affirmative action staff that existed at the beginning of the year prior to reduction.

Local control, Downey argues, may provide the most workable and only approach to the problem. The courts and the federal and

state governments have provided little help, and local districts are "virtually alone in their search for equitable, impartial solutions."

232 **Ellsworth, David F.** *Early Retirement: A Proposal for Adjustment to Declining Enrollments.* Springfield, Illinois: Department of Planning and Research, Illinois State Office of Education, 1977. 81 pages. ED 149 435.

One of the problems created by declining enrollment in Illinois has been the accumulation of older, experienced staff at the upper end of the salary scale, and a concomitant lack of fresh, new staff starting at beginning salaries. The present retirement plan in Illinois aggravates this problem because it contains several "disincentives" to early retirement. Ellsworth discusses the present retirement plan and its disadvantages and outlines an alternative plan that makes early retirement more attractive.

One of the disincentives in the present system is the "age discrimination effect": if a person retires before he or she is sixty and has less than thirty-five years of creditable service, the basic retirement annuity is discounted at a rate of 6 percent for each year less than sixty. Thus the annuity of a person who retires at fifty-five is discounted by 30 percent. Ellsworth's early retirement plan, however, would allow persons at age fifty-five to retire with an undiscounted pension after only twenty years service.

But there are also other disincentives. Workers may not retire because their salaries are increasing every year (and retirement annuities are computed on the basis of average past salary). Or they may continue working because of the "longevity effect": the longer the service (up to thirty-eight years), the greater is the annuity as a percentage of average past salary (up to 75 percent). The early retirement proposal would decrease the percent of increase in the annuity and thus dampen the longevity effect.

In short, these modifications of the present system would make early retirement more attractive but would not completely eliminate the incentives for continued employment. The author devotes a good part of the paper to projections of new teacher openings and possible savings that Illinois might realize if the early retirement plan were instituted statewide.

233 **Jascourt, Hugh D.** "The Role of Negotiations in the Equation 'Declining School Enrollment = Layoffs'; An Overview." *Journal of Law and Education,* 7, 2 (April 1978), pp. 239-42. EJ 177 715.

Spenla, William A.; Whalen, Garry M.; and **Otto, Cathleen.** "The Role of Negotiations in the Equation 'Declining School Enrollment = Layoffs'; A Management Perspective." *Journal of Law and Education,* 7, 2 (April 1978), pp. 243-63. EJ 177 716.

Nassau, Stephen M. "The Role of Negotiations in the Equation 'Declining School Enrollment = Layoffs'; A Union Perspective." *Journal of Law and Education,* 7, 2 (April 1978), pp. 265-78. EJ 177 717.

Should job security for teachers be a mandatory subject of collective bargaining? Or does union influence on reduction-in-force policies constitute an unlawful delegation of power in the public realm? The answers to these important questions are slowly being developed in the courts. These three excellent articles clearly outline the complex legal issues involved and provide a contrast of union and managerial perspectives regarding the role of negotiations in staff reduction decisions.

Currently, there are overlaps and oftentimes contradictions between state laws granting authority to school boards and state statutes governing collective bargaining and teachers rights. So far, the courts have ruled that school boards have the power to lay off teachers for economic reasons regardless of whether or not a tenure statute gives them the authority to do so.

Many states also have reduction-in-force statutes that address the issues of due process for dismissed teachers and the use of seniority in determining who will be dismissed. But the role of unions in helping to formulate RIF policy is only now being dealt with in the courts. The articles describe several court cases that illustrate the development of this area of case law.

Predictably, the management and union perspectives on this issue differ on a number of key points. The union perspective argues that "there is no reason why a school board should not be able to agree to a flat prohibition" of reduction in force as long as the contract period is short and "the financial picture is reasonably predictable."

But the management perspective argues firmly against any such clauses prohibiting RIF. The case of the Yonkers (New York) school district supports this viewpoint: the board agreed to a "no RIF" clause in a three-year contract but then was confronted by a severe enrollment drop. The resulting legal battle was messy at best.

The management perspective also encourages boards to avoid agreeing to "provisions specifying procedures for RIF and recall of non-tenured teachers," in particular the use of seniority in deciding layoff and recall. The argument is that such provisions would prevent the board from retaining the best educators. The union perspective is quite the opposite, arguing for very specific layoff and recall provisions based on seniority and other factors as well, such as "prior academic achievement" and "overall teaching experience."

The two perspectives disagree on a number of other points, but there is also a good deal of common ground between them. Included is a complete sample RIF clause developed by the National Education Association.

234 "Job Security Is Coming to the Fore as a Teacher Issue." *Salary and Merit,* January 1977, pp. 5-6. EJ 154 993.

What is more important to teachers at the negotiating table—increased pay or job security? In the West Milford (New Jersey) school district, the teacher association made job security a major issue at the bargaining table by pushing for a "No Reduction in Force" contract clause.

As originally written, the clause would have made it nearly impossible to reduce the teaching staff under any conditions. The

modified clause that was accepted by the board, however, allows reduction in force for the following reasons: attrition, declining enrollment, a disaster or catastrophe, a reduction in state aid, or "budget cuts above and beyond the control of the Board of Education."

With these modifications, the superintendent believes the clause is "harmless." But some board members in the state believe that even the modified clause is dangerous, because teachers may now try to have some of the modifications eliminated in future bargaining sessions.

Such a clause, however, may give management a tool for holding down future salary increases: in a time of increasing unemployment, teachers begin to realize that "working at less pay is better than not working at all." Thus teacher organizations may accept reduced pay increases in return for job security clauses.

235 **Kalvelage, Joan; Schmuck, Patricia A.;** and **Arends, Jane.** "Reductions in Force and Affirmative Action." *Educational Economics,* 3, 1 (January/February 1978), pp. 12-14, 23. EJ 173 555.

Under affirmative action policies, more women and minorities have been hired for many educational positions. But now, as the educational staffs of many districts are being reduced, the gains of affirmative action are being lost, mainly because of the firmly entrenched seniority system. So how can a school district reduce its staff, yet at the same time both maintain the seniority system and continue to comply with the mandates of affirmative action? The authors suggest job sharing and more permanent part-time positions as promising answers to this question.

These two options can serve to redistribute the available work among a larger group of employees and thus save some teachers from layoff. Research has shown that "part-time patterns reduce absenteeism, tardiness, staff turnover, overtime costs, and wasted capital investment." Other studies have shown that the productivity of part-time workers is higher than that of full-time employees. For example, one study found that "half-time social workers carried 89% of the average caseload of full-time workers."

The authors note, however, that there are some unsolved problems with job sharing and permanent part-time work. For example, part-time workers have diminished opportunities for promotion, fewer fringe benefits and opportunities for overtime, and inadequate job security. The authors also argue that society still tends to regard part-time employment as less important than full-time work, thus discouraging many from trying it, particularly men.

The authors suggest that many classified positions (such as counselor, school psychologist, and art, music, and physical education teachers) can be turned into permanent, part-time positions. Job sharing would be especially profitable for positions with many separate functions, such as classroom teacher, principal, and special program director.

236 **Lombardi, John.** *Reduction in Force. An Analysis of the Policies and Their Implementation. Topical Paper No. 48.* Los Angeles: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, University of California, 1974. 36 pages. ED 099 043.

After decades of growth, community colleges, like the public schools, have unexpectedly faced declining enrollments and financial problems, beginning in the early seventies. They have consequently, Lombardi reports, been forced to reduce staff on a large scale. Lombardi's overview of community college reduction problems and policies, well documented and illustrated by example, should prove helpful to similarly plagued public school districts.

Lombardi warns from the start that colleges should not use staff reduction as a means to suddenly begin firing unwanted teachers. They should carefully develop both procedures (which are at issue in most court challenges) that guarantee due process and reduction policies that prevent arbitrary or discriminatory dismissal.

Upon a full review of institution policies, collective bargaining agreements, and court action, Lombardi concludes that staff reduction will present the least problem when reduction criteria are objective and easily identified and when faculty participate in policy development, receive early warning of possible reductions, and enjoy opportunities for reassignment, retraining, and rehiring, if dismissed. Of prime importance, he states, is the willingness of administrators to consider all alternatives to actual dismissal.

237 **Nolte, M. Chester.** "How to Tell Which Teachers to Keep and Which to Lay Off." *The American School Board Journal,* 163, 6 (June 1976), pp. 28-30. EJ 139 362.

Although most writers argue that staff reduction should not be based on teacher competence, many educators, including Nolte, favor such an approach. Nolte, the past president of the National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, discusses a means to base reduction on merit and still satisfy court standards. Such reduction can succeed, he states, if districts avoid arbitrary or

capricious decisions, a pattern of discriminatory action, and damage of teacher reputation. Districts need to pay attention to the process of reduction, being careful to follow the state tenure law process and to support decisions with adequate factual information.

Vague evaluative criteria or rating scales, he warns, will not suffice in court. He suggests that districts instead base selection primarily on teacher effectiveness, as demonstrated by student achievement, and secondarily on the criteria of firmness, friendliness, and fairness, which he carefully defines and illustrates.

238 **Oregon State Department of Education.** *Reduction in Force: Suggested Personnel Policy Guidelines for School Districts.* Salem, Oregon: Division of Administrative Support, 1977. 20 pages. ED 137 904.

While most publications highlight specific staff reduction issues, this state guide comprehensively treats all aspects of reduction. It presents districts with a listing of required and suggested procedures and occasionally offers a choice of options. The state warns that local boards should seek legal counsel before adapting general guidelines to fit local needs. It also advises early planning for reduction, suggesting that districts develop procedures "in a nonemotional setting and before a crisis occurs."

In clear outline form, the guide discusses ways of developing a plan for carrying out a staff reduction. The plan includes such steps as deciding on the need for reduction, determining which positions and activities to cut, adopting procedures for actually reducing staff, and defining grievance and recall procedures. A district's reduction procedures need to specify means of identifying specific positions to be cut, by grade, school, subject, or department; stimulating natural attrition; selecting staff to be retained; and notifying teachers to be dismissed. Although the guidelines are sometimes directly tied to Oregon law, they should be generally applicable to districts outside Oregon.

239 **Powell, Janet F.,** and **Stemnock, Suzanne K.** *Local Policies for Reduction in Force. ERS Information Aid.* Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, 1975. 18 pages. ED 105 574.

In a brief overview of staff reduction problems, Powell and Stemnock state that seniority, traditionally the major criterion in staff reduction, has been challenged by the newly gained job security rights of nontenured teachers and by court-mandated affirmative action requirements. They present a thorough list of seventy questions regarding reduction policies for consideration by local districts.

Under the general area of layoff order, for instance, they ask districts to consider the following issues: (1) the relative importance of tenure, seniority, qualifications, and performance as retention criteria; (2) the definition of seniority in terms of total teaching experience or years of service in the system, in a department, or at a grade level; (3) the determination of date of employment; (4) the place of various types of leaves in the determination of seniority; (5) the means of judging qualifications and performance; (6) the granting of special preference to teacher association officers; and (7) the transfer of administrators to teaching positions.

The bulk of the publication consists of sample reduction policies and contract provisions—some very specific—from sixteen districts. The report offers no evaluation or recommendations, but the suggestive questions and sample policies should aid districts by raising all pertinent issues.

240 **Schultz, Raymond E.** "A Sane Approach to Staff Reduction." *Community College Review,* 3, 3 (January 1976), pp. 6-13. EJ 133 029.

After an overview of the staff reduction problem, Schultz argues that the strict use of seniority in reduction, while expedient, will create serious problems in the long run. It will offer the least financial relief, contribute to a faculty age imbalance and the loss of new ideas, and cause affirmative action problems.

Schultz provides a detailed step-by-step approach to reduction that considers alternatives to strict seniority selection. While he favors the laying off of nontenured staff before tenured staff, he advises institutions to keep essential faculty, regardless of classification, and pay attention to such factors as race, sex, and age. The major selection criterion should be the importance of staff to individual programs and the institution. When deviating from seniority, institutions will need to document why retained faculty are more important to their programs.

In discussing due process procedures, Schultz states that, according to recent court decisions, an institution must provide dismissed faculty with a written statement explaining its decision to terminate, a description of the manner by which it reached its decision, the information used in making its decision, and an opportunity to respond.

241 **Sinowitz, Betty E.,** and **Hallam, Charlotte.** "Fighting Reductions in Force." *Today's Education,* 64, 2 (March/April 1975), pp. 32-34, 96. EJ 131 690.

While most available literature addresses administrators and school boards, Sinowitz and Hallam address local education associations. They discuss association actions that can minimize the problems of staff reduction and describe several court cases in which dismissed teachers have challenged school boards.

Teacher associations, the authors argue, should carefully review the facts when districts propose reductions due to district reorganization, declining enrollments, or budget problems and "question any failure of districts to seek and use all available resources" and alternatives. Such scrutiny, the authors note, can enable an association to successfully fight a reduction in force. Districts should seek to "maintain all existing staff positions" so that they can "increase the quality of services to students," through lowered student-teacher ratios, additional individualized instruction, and new programs.

When reductions become necessary, the authors state, associations should insist that districts satisfy statutory and contractual

agreements and due process, which typically demand "timely notice, statement of reasons, a hearing, and the right to appeal to a court." Associations should also urge the use of objective criteria for reduction, such as certification (of prime importance), seniority, degrees, and experience.

Administrators might not be pleased with the authors' adversary tone, but they should appreciate this warning, or challenge, as they strive to develop workable reduction policies.

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242 **Thomas, Donald.** "Strategies for Closing a School, Reducing Staffs." *NASSP Bulletin,* 61, 407 (March 1977), pp. 8-19. EJ 160 399.

Thomas, superintendent of the Salt Lake City schools, which have suffered a 38 percent enrollment decline, offers some useful advice to other administrators. Districts facing enrollment decline, he states, must find ways to reduce staff, utilize or sell surplus space, conserve finances, increase transportation services, and generate staff and community support. He briefly discusses all these tasks and elaborates on school closure and staff reduction.

For districts considering reduction, he suggests several actions that can "save money," "minimize terminations," and "create new opportunities." To begin with, districts can staff for midyear rather than fall enrollments, to prevent overstaffing; adopt an early retirement plan; and aggressively seek government and private funding for new services, which will use extra staff. They can also work with neighboring districts to share or transfer staff, retrain secondary teachers for the more frequently vacated elementary positions, and use surplus teachers as a corps of substitutes. They can also adopt an aggressive policy for terminating incompetent teachers. The Salt Lake schools, Thomas notes, have enjoyed success and teacher cooperation in their termination effort, which provides due process and allows teachers time to improve. Thomas concludes by advising management to work closely with staff throughout the reduction process.

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243 **Weldy, Gilbert R.** "Enrollment Declines and Reductions in Force—What Can Administrators Do?" Paper presented at the National Association of Secondary School Principals annual meeting, Anaheim, February 1978. 10 pages. ED 150 731.

Total enrollment in Weldy's school district near Chicago has dropped 20 percent from its peak in 1970, and by 1980 it will have dropped by 37 percent. One of three large high schools will be closed in 1980.

In response to this dramatic decline, the district has hired almost no new teachers in the past several years. All nontenured teachers are routinely dismissed each year until the district is sure, based on student registrations, that it needs these teachers.

Many teachers in the school to be closed are apprehensive about their transfer and reassignment. To alleviate some of this tension, the district will ask teachers eighteen months before the closing to indicate their preferences for building, department, and extracurricular assignments. Some teachers, however, have indicated a desire to know who their supervisor will be before they indicate a preference. Thus Weldy recommends that administrative assignments be made before teacher assignments in such cases.

Weldy also points out that during times of staff reduction and transfer, teachers become anxious about their futures, and rumors often run wild. He recommends that principals be particularly careful to communicate openly and clearly during such layoff periods.

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17 School Financial Elections

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244 **Banach, William J.,** and **Franks, Cass.** "You Can Pass That Next Financial Issue—with Proper Planning." *Journal of Educational Communication,* 2, 3 (Spring 1977), pp. 4-14. EJ 175 705, EJ 175 706, and EJ 175 707.

The cover page of the journal holds the key to its workshop feature on surviving an education referendum: "Is Your Child Worth 42 Cents?" is asked in bold letters. Such an appeal inevitably oversimplifies the complexities of school financing, but it grabs attention. Banach and Franks treat education as a product—a product that can be sold if proper attention is paid to marketing techniques. While such an attitude may seem cynical to some educators, these days of increasing costs and failed tax levies leave no room for self-righteousness. The authors' smorgasbord of concrete advice is a useful resource for the nervous administrator who is facing a test at the polls.

The persistent emphasis in this series of eight features is on attention to detail and practical implementation. The contents include a twelve-week campaign calendar, a sample survey form, a model organization chart, one hundred questions to guide those in charge, a comparison of winning and losing campaigns, an article on election surveys, and a short list of steps to success at the ballot box. While all these suggestions are of interest, the breakdown of analytic tools is Banach and Frank's most substantial contribution.

Quality education may be a district's most salable attribute, but postelection analysis and preelection surveys are invaluable aids; educators must learn, the authors insist, to employ strategies "commonly used by business and commercial firms who wish to improve the marketability of their products."

A postelection analysis is actually the beginning of preparation for the next referendum. For example, after their last involvement with a major millage election, Banach and Franks found that a high voter turnout lessened the chance of a ballot proposal's success, that the ballot issue passed in all but one precinct where women voters outnumbered male voters, and that younger people were more likely to support new taxes. This kind of information is of obvious importance to administrators who are attempting to lure "yes" voters to the polls.

A preelection survey can give school managers a firm sense of the community's pulse. Over the course of five years. Banach and Franks conducted random samples two months before the actual elections, and the outcomes never deviated more than 5 percent from the original projections. Telephone surveys seem to be especially useful because they are economical and quick.

Today's voters may have tight holds on their wallets, but there is no need to give up hope; education can be sold. It is up to administrators to encourage the market for education in their communities.

245 **Banach, William J.,** and **Westley, Lawrence.** "Public Relations, Computers, and Election Success." Paper presented at Educational Data Systems Association meeting, St. Paul, May 1972. 18 pages. ED 063 636.

Banach and Westley describe a method of planning for school

financial elections, using "techniques that, collectively, will give you a 5 to 1 chance of winning the next time you go to the polls." The authors suggest that there are seven basic steps to developing a successful campaign: "analysis, determination of needs, development of strategy, organization, finance, communication, and evaluation." Analysis—utilizing opinion surveys—should be "year-around or continual." For effective organization, the authors suggest using a network of committees under the overall supervision of a campaign coordinator. They recommend committees on finance, publicity, election logistics, voter registration, opinion surveys and community education, and data processing.

Historically, low voter turnouts have often meant approval of financial measures. Therefore, it is important that a campaign to increase voter turnout be aimed selectively toward potential school supporters. Members of certain groups are most likely to support school budgets; cards and files should be kept on such voters. In the actual election described, "over 70 percent of those in the 'yes' file voted." Because the measure passed, the authors conclude that "by defining audiences and tailoring campaign material to their needs, one can significantly affect election results."

246 **Boss, Michael.** *The Supply and Cost of Education and the Vote: A Political-Economic Theory of School Finance Elections.* Eugene: Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1973. 37 pages. ED 082 371.

Despite an abundance of jargon, Boss's analysis of the school financial election process is both original and provocative. The traditional explanation for budget rejections is that they are caused by a "taxpayers' revolt" against the high price of education. Boss argues that cost is only one variable in a school election, which is a kind of marketplace transaction in which the voters (collectively acting as a consumer) decide whether or not the commodity being offered (the education the schools provide) is worth purchasing at the proposed price. Voters are likely to decide to buy when "the proposed supply of the public good is less than or equal to the median preference for that good." Conversely, if the proposed supply exceeds the demand, the voters are likely not to buy. The importance of cost is in helping establish the level of demand; "as the tax-price per unit of education increases," the demand will tend to decrease.

The notion that price interacts with supply and demand in determining how the voters respond to a proposed budget puts school election results in a different perspective. For example, close elections—or even budget defeats—"may indicate that the present systems of school finances are operating in a very desirable fashion"; an evenly divided election indicates that the public is being asked to spend as much as it is willing to spend for the best education it is willing to purchase. This may mean that continued close elections are inevitable. But if there is no "taxpayers' revolt" per se, schools need not respond by reducing costs and cutting back on educational services. Instead, "there may be great potential for

increasing individual and collective demand for education through improved educational packages that better satisfy the voter-taxpayers."

247 **ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.** *School Financial Elections. Research Action Brief.* Eugene: University of Oregon, 1977. 5 pages. ED 140 434.

This review discusses its subjects from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Its first section concisely summarizes some of the most significant research findings about voting behavior in school elections. Many of the most important factors in shaping the voting decision, including "race, level of education, age, and economic status," are beyond the control of school administrators. The second section suggests "appropriate action school administrators can take to make the most of the challenge they face in securing voter approval of funds to operate the schools." It does this by focusing on some of the practical implications of the research findings.

Noting that schools must now actively work for voter approval, the review suggests that campaign efforts should be directed toward the most likely "yes" voters. The reason for this is that the school voting decision is relatively permanent, and few negative decisions can be reversed in a short campaign. In addition, since taxes are not always decisive in determining outcome, "cuts in school spending may not change the minds of many voters." Further, since parents, especially those of older students, are no longer particularly likely to support the schools, efforts to get them to vote may not be of much use either.

Schools should strive to avoid controversy, which is strongly linked to election defeats. A good way to do this is by working to improve communication between the schools and the voting public. As the document hopefully suggests: "School systems that consult the public about educational policy may well find that

voters who feel that the schools are interested in their opinions all year, not merely at tax time, will not be so reluctant to pay the costs of quality education."

248 **Falkinham, Ken.** "Organized Work: The Road to a Successful Referendum." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 57, 9 (May 1976), pp. 611-12. EJ 137 985.

Falkinham, noting that "America's school districts must deal with an increasingly obstinate electorate," outlines some strategies for facilitating passage of school financial measures. To begin with, schools should carefully analyze their needs. They should make certain that "all alternatives to tax increases or new building programs have been exhausted" and that "all avenues of expense cutting and/or building and room utilization have been considered" before submitting requests to the voters. When the election is called, "the public must be convinced that the Board of Education and the school administration are solidly behind the referendum."

Falkinham next outlines a plan to promote passage of the budget measure. His plan includes a careful publicity campaign and a concerted effort to get out the "yes" vote. But "what makes the plan different from other campaign tactics is its essential ingredient: small group presentations." Those who speak to these small gatherings should follow a precise outline designed to ensure "consistent, credible presentations." In this way, the same information will be disseminated at each meeting, the same points emphasized and not emphasized. The meetings themselves should be "informal, give-and-take, question and answer sessions."

249 **Hall, John Stuart,** and **Piele, Philip K.** "Selected Determinants of Precinct Voting Decisions in School Budget Elections." *The Western Political Quarterly,* 29, 3 (September 1976), pp. 440-56. EJ 148 082.

Hall and Piele conducted a study of voting behavior in Eugene, Oregon. They found that "house value was strongly . . . and positively correlated to positive voting." In addition, they found "positive voting by individuals with incomes in excess of $20,000." These findings may indicate "that higher income increases the capacity to pay taxes."

Another useful predictor of polling place voting was previous support for George Wallace. The authors suggest that a Wallace vote reflected a worldview that summarized many of the feelings attributed to "alienated" individuals. The study found that "support for Wallace and opposition to school budget elections are closely related and cut across the class line reflected in house value."

However, "the single most significant indicator for predicting the outcome of school budget elections in Eugene" was previous polling place voting habits. The fact that the school budget election decision appears to be relatively permanent does not, of course, explain how that decision is made initially or why it might be changed: the authors suggest that these might be useful areas for further research.

If Hall and Piele's work is interesting for the factors it suggests do influence voting behavior, it is positively surprising for at least two factors it suggests apparently have no influence. The authors note that "there now appears to be substantial evidence to seriously question the long-standing belief that schools can look to parents rather than the general public for greater support in school financial elections." And while there was "some negative relationship between age and positive voting" (confirming the maxim that the elderly vote against school budgets), the correlation disappeared when house value was added as a control.

250 **Hatley, Richard V.,** and **Croskey, Frank L.** "Socioeconomic Variables as Predictors of School Financial Referenda Voting Behavior." *Journal of Education Finance,* 2, 4 (Spring 1977), pp. 481-98. EJ 160 442.

With costs soaring and school referenda failing, educators have been compelled to turn to the realm of the political scientist and consider the causes of voting behavior. The financial bind has convinced administrators that voter apathy and negativity can continue only if the public is not addressed on its own terms. If religion, for example, is particularly important in deciding the response at the polls, school districts might well want to gear their campaigns to religious issues.

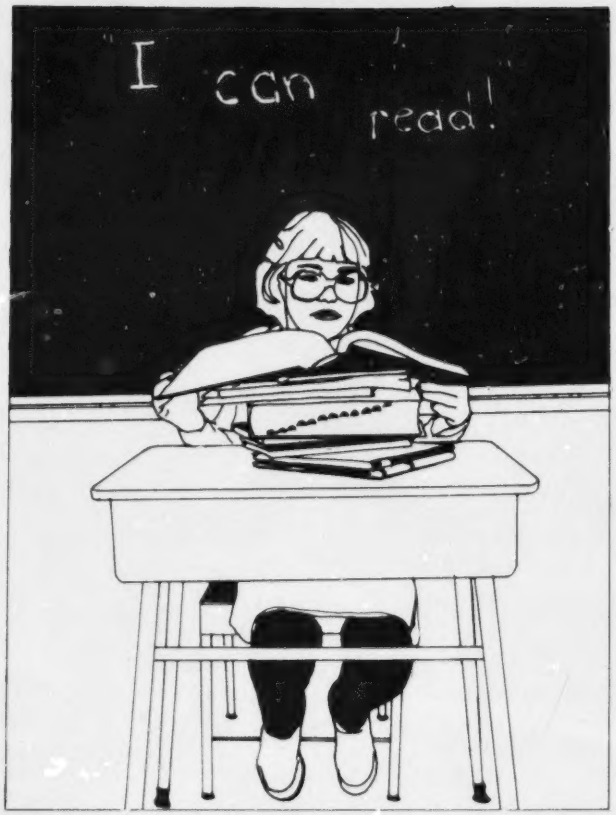
Following up on previous studies, Hatley and Croskey assess stable social and economic factors along with more fluid attitudes toward school personnel, efficiency, and effectiveness. The researchers sent questionnaires to a random sample of voters in rural, suburban, and urban Kansas districts that had held a bond election within the preceding two years. The results were subjected to regression analysis, which accounted for variance with disparate results—99 percent in one case and only 15 percent in another.

The most significant of the variables were not economic or attitudinal but personal and sociological: sex, marital status, number of children, mobility, and educational level. Although such insights are helpful, Hatley and Croskey do not pretend to have all the answers. "Perhaps voting," they suggest, "is largely a very personal, somewhat unpredictable, impulsive behavior lacking conscious rationality on the part of the electorate."

The study is both encouraging and discouraging. On one hand, Hatley and Croskey have developed a useful tool for assessing and predicting the results of school financial referenda. But the most important variables seem to be those not easily changed. Short of attempting to keep people in certain socioeconomic levels away from the polls, there may be little administrators can do to bolster electoral support, and referenda will continue to fail.

251 **Jennings, Robert E.** "The Effects of Tax Resistance." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 54, 8 (April 1973), pp. 567-68. EJ 077 857.

Jennings points out that one reason for school financial election defeats may be simply "the reluctance of citizens to pay more taxes." Indeed, there need not even be any real objection to the financial measure being proposed; schools may be merely the victims of "voters' frustrations at their inability to directly affect



taxing policies in other jurisdictions."

Often factors other than tax resistance help to determine the outcome of an election. The public may, for example, object to certain specific school policies; even the personalities of school officials may generate controversy. In addition, in bond elections there may be disagreements about the locations and designs of proposed school facilities.

Jennings reports on a study to determine the effects of taxpayer resistance in four suburban school districts. The study indicated that "tax resistance can form a solid bloc of opposition to funding proposals," but that this need not lead to the defeat of such proposals. A more critical problem is the presence of unresolved controversies in the election. Such controversies augment the relatively constant nucleus of opposition formed by tax resisters; thus "the more unresolved issues . . . the greater the risk of defeat." Tax resistance itself is probably impossible to eliminate, so schools should work "to isolate tax resistance through reduction of other controversies."

252 **Jennings, Robert E.,** and **Milstein, Mike M.** "Citizens' Attitudes in School Tax Voting." *Education and Urban Society*, 5, 3 (May 1973), pp. 299-319. EJ 078 893.

This article takes a broader, but no less insightful, look at the survey of voter attitudes discussed in Jennings. The study focused on four districts in suburban Buffalo, New York, that had recently held bond elections, two of which were successful. The authors found that most voters—negative as well as positive—expressed faith in local school boards and were relatively satisfied with the quality of education the schools were providing. Ironically, the authors speculate that such confidence in the schools might actually encourage negative voting among voters who feel that the schools are *already* doing a good job and therefore do not need any more money.

Even voters who are satisfied with the schools may vote against bond measures if they become concerned about specific issues. For example, in the two losing districts "building plans became centers of controversy." More generally, many voters in losing districts believed the proposals included too many "frills." As a result, they tended to question "the necessity of new educational features and the appropriateness of the architectural designs of the proposed facilities."

The tax costs of a proposal were often important in determining its fate. Some voters would oppose even desirable and reasonably priced facilities if they thought building them would cause taxes to increase. Less affluent voters were apparently most concerned about rising taxes; "the lower the (voter's) income, the more likely the tax bill was perceived as becoming excessive." This suggests that a voter's ability to pay a tax increase may be more important than the absolute size of such an increase.

253 **Jones, J. William.** *Budget/Finance Campaigns: You Can't Afford to Lose.* Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1977. 97 pages. ED 140 428.

"A financial revolution has descended on the classrooms of America," Jones says in his characteristically melodramatic style, "perhaps with more intensity than any other revolution to visit public education since its conception in the early 1800s. The revolution has meant closed schools, laid-off teachers, drastic cutbacks in educational services, and defeat after defeat of bond issues and tax levies intended to stem the flow of the fiscal tide that continues to erode public education from coast to coast." But the national trend is not the whole story: some bond issues and tax levies are passing. With today's frugal electorate, administrators need to be especially aware of how to wage an effective campaign.

Although no one strategy is infallible, there are several elements common to almost every successful school financial election. Jones emphasizes that year-round communication is a necessity and that the budget should be intelligible since voters are likely to resent "a waterfall of financial figures and formulas couched in fiscal jargon that only an accountant can understand." Another key ingredient is citizen participation, a factor that adds an essential note of credibility to a budget proposal. Finally, the first announcement of the campaign should be carefully planned and well publicized; a recent study of bond elections in Iowa indicates that three-fourths

of the voters made up their minds the first time they heard of the proposal.

While these truisms deserve attention, it is the practical details of organizing a campaign that will try administrators. At all costs they should avoid the specter of a split school board, since friction within the board of education can only make the electorate wary. Strategies should be mapped out on the basis of previous election results and public opinion polls. The campaign should be directed toward those who already support the budget, not those who are opposed; "it's more productive and easier to find ten 'yes' votes than to turn one 'no' voter around."

Every effort should be made to involve the public. Citizens groups should not be allowed to run the campaign, however, because it is a job for professionals who have the requisite time, experience, and knowledge. The most successful approach, Jones argues, talks less about money and more about programs. Education is for students, not accountants. He fills out these and other suggestions with numerous examples, including short sketches of successful campaigns and advice from other experts.

To shortchange an election campaign is to shortchange the students, and Jones emphasizes that it is impossible to be too pragmatic. A referendum may be only a test of a district's public relations abilities, but the stakes are too high to depend solely on the electorate's goodwill.

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254 **Kowalski, Joan P. Sullivan.** *Voter Behavior and Campaign Strategies in School Finance Elections.* Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, Inc., 1977. 50 pages. ED 140 383.

This research brief summarizes most of the recent work that has been done on school elections. The Educational Research Service describes the recent history of school finance voting, discusses some of the factors that influence voting behavior, and suggests campaign strategies that can be effective in promoting passage of a school money measure. Most of the material is not original, but this document is useful as a single source that includes a representative sample of existing information about school financial elections.

ERS's summary of "variables that are associated with favorable" election outcomes contains some thoughtful advice that school officials would do well to heed. How citizens vote depends in part on their perception of the superintendent or school board: "Voters who identify strongly with school officials" and "who believe their school officials are providing effective leadership" are more likely to "vote favorably for the schools." Instead of encouraging greater participation, districts should "take advantage of normal low turnout to recruit more voters who favor school issues." ERS also recommends that school officials "begin campaigns early; the longer the campaign effort, the more likely it is that the bond or tax issue will pass." Finally, because "voter behavior surveys indicate that a high information level was associated with positive voting . . . while the greatest negative voting was registered by those who thought there were no local needs," districts should work to communicate arguments for approving money requests. Such communication is best achieved through "encouraging community participation in school-related activities."

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255 **Neufeld, John L.** "Taxrate Referenda and the Property Taxpayers' Revolt." *National Tax Journal,* 30, 4 (December 1977), pp. 441-56. EJ 175 590.

The "taxpayers' revolt" of the early 1970s is often seen as an attack on a particular form of taxation—a line of thinking that assumes voters are opposed to the property tax *per se.* Because property taxes are an important element in school financing, the electorate's reluctance may also be seen as an expression of disenchantment with the whole educational system. But, as Neufeld convincingly demonstrates, there is no need to draw such harrowing conclusions from the schools' succession of defeats at the ballot box. The voters support education, but the drastic budget increases of the late 1960s and early 70s simply proved excessive. "The 'revolt' can be seen, in this light, as a signal to the public education sector to appropriately reduce its rate of growth of expenditures."

Neufeld grounds his argument in a model of voter behavior in millage elections—a model that is also useful in understanding public attitudes toward tax increases generally. Basic assumptions are laid out in formulas that are tested with referendum results in seventeen Michigan districts. Neufeld contrasts elections held during the relatively acquiescent years of 1959-1961 with those held during 1969-1971 to determine if the latter era is characterized by anything that might be described as a property tax rebellion.

His analysis indicates that "not only is there no evidence of a property taxpayers' revolt in the later period, but the evidence suggests the contrary: the property tax appears to have been a less objectionable source of school financing in the later period than the earlier period."

With this kind of evidence, administrators can no longer blame all their troubles at the polls on an unappeasable electorate. There have been no dramatic changes; the public still supports education. But the voters insist that the price tags reflect the expectations and realities of the 70s.

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256 **Piele, Philip K.,** and **Hall, John Stuart.** *Budgets, Bonds, and Ballots: Voting Behavior in School Financial Elections.* Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, D. C. Heath and Company, 1973. 220 pages. ED 137 989.

In this comprehensive volume, Piele and Hall catalog and evaluate the findings of nearly every significant empirical research study conducted from 1960 to 1973 of voter behavior in school financial elections. They note that voter behavior has changed markedly in recent years. The passage of a school financial measure, once little more than a formality, has become increasingly difficult. Since the mid-1960s, the consensus of the electorate "appears to have changed from a majority in support [of such measures] to a majority in opposition." Despite this shift, there is still general approval of and esteem for public education. In fact,

96 there seems to be little connection between a voter's perception of the quality of public education and his or her voting habits.

The authors considered the relative importance of various factors in shaping the decisions of individual voters. They found little support for the theory that people vote out of simple economic self-interest. There is evidently "no significant relationship between relative issue cost and election outcome." Further, although homeowners are the group most directly affected by higher property taxes, the authors found "no statistically significant relationship between home ownership and voting for or against a school financial election."

Socioeconomic status may, however, influence voting; there appears to be a "strong positive relationship between income and educational attainment and positive voting in school financial elections." In addition, voting behavior may be influenced by how a person sees his relationship to his community; "voters who are alienated are more likely to oppose school financial issues than those who are not."

As public attitudes toward school financial measures have changed, so, too, have the best tactics for supporters of such measures to employ. Empirical support for the idea that the best way to secure approval is to "get out the vote" is "almost nonexistent." In fact, the authors suggest that a "general increase in voter turnout will produce a relatively greater representation of those less likely to favor school financial elections." Thus efforts should be focused primarily on those most likely to support the measure, typically on "young, highly educated, relatively wealthy white-collar workers."

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257 **Rubinfeld, Daniel L.** "Voting in a Local School Election: A Micro Analysis." *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 59, 1 (February 1977), pp. 30-42. EJ 158 722.

Most recent studies of voting behavior have focused on the "median voter" and have been based on data from the precinct, school district, or local level. Although there are advantages to such an approach, it ignores important elements and invites bias. An analysis of information drawn from a survey of households may have liabilities, but Rubinfeld has nevertheless found it a useful complement to other tacks. His microanalysis of two local school elections in Troy, Michigan, not only suggests important influences on voter behavior, but also reveals methodological weaknesses in the aggregated model.

The May referendum in the Detroit suburb failed by a large margin while the same budget presented in June barely passed. Rubinfeld posits that voters make their choices according to self-interest, and the millage election results generally bear out his assumption. Those most inclined to support the school budget, he found, are usually relatively well off, have children in school, and expect to get their money's worth out of education. The success of the second referendum, then, was mainly a result of new voters at the polls, not attitudinal changes. Michigan's "circuit-breaker" property tax relief plan was introduced between the May and June elections, but it does not seem to have played an influential role in the passage of the proposal.

Although his observations may be of practical value, Rubinfeld's primary interest is in the development of a model. He concludes that microanalysis is a valid tool in assessing and predicting election decisions and that it can lend precision to the findings of aggregated studies.

EA 011 118

18 School Volunteer Programs

ED163638

258 **Ainsworth, Ellen.** "Parent Involvement in Schools: A Parent's View." *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 6, 3 (January 1977), pp. 6-8. EJ 159 815.

The parent's perspective on volunteer programs is of particular interest in a field that is directly concerned with nonprofessionals. As an education consultant with the League of Women Voters and as a concerned parent, Ainsworth is well aware of the difficulties of instituting a volunteer project. But she finds no reason to despair; the solution, she suggests, lies in a realistic assessment of the situation and appropriate action.

Ainsworth's long rundown of likely problems is a helpful warning to those who might expect a volunteer program to run smoothly on goodwill alone. On the district level, administrators are apt to ignore the help that volunteers have given, may have difficulty choosing members of advisory committees, must arrange training programs, and may encounter frustrations in the course of long-term projects. On the classroom level, teachers must learn to treat parents as coworkers, not as rivals, and a coordinator must match volunteers' skills and personalities with needs.

While Ainsworth does not minimize these obstacles, she is not easily discouraged. Training in group dynamics can ease tensions in committee work, attrition will eventually take care of uncommitted parents, and volunteers can learn to accept training. Ainsworth's optimism is not unfounded: her participation in an Early Childhood Education school has convinced her that parent volunteer programs do work. The result, she says, is less alienation between the schools and the community.

259 **Bartley, Bayard.** *Potential Building Technique (PBT): A Volunteer Para-Professional for the Classroom.* Santa Ana, California: Santa Ana Unified School District, 1976. 11 pages. ED 122 173.

Numerous programs center on students with severe educational problems, but the "average" child is too often neglected. The Potential Building Technique (PBT) is designed to reach this group by encouraging all pupils to feel worthwhile. Developed by Bartley for the Santa Ana schools, the technique has been used with great success in several California districts.

The PBT volunteers are not asked to grade papers, discipline students, or perform clerical duties (some of the tasks frequently associated with volunteer work). The PBT aide is in the classroom for only one reason—to interact with the children on a one-to-one basis and give them confidence in their social and academic endeavors. Acceptable behavior is fostered by tactile, aural, and visual rewards. The volunteer touches the pupils warmly, looks them in the eyes, tells the children exactly what they have done right, and makes a slash on the Work Record card; each response is a tangible reward for the child.

The PBT is one of the few programs that actively seek out the student who sits quietly in the corner. With the kind of close interaction it offers, volunteers can feel that their time has been well spent, and children can discover a new sense of their own abilities.

260 **Columbus Public Schools.** *Volunteer Services System Year 3.* Columbus, Ohio: 1976. 116 pages. ED 126 619.

Project Director Helgerson and her coworkers have updated two previous reports and constructed a comprehensive model for management of a volunteer system suitable to any school district. The basic model is designed to meet the needs of a changing community; the administrative structure is, therefore, dynamic and amenable to shared decision-making. The organization of volunteer activities also allows for innovation, and an assessment period invites modification.

Without willing workers, the model is only theory, so a section on the management of particular programs indicates ways to put the system into practice. Attention is paid to recruitment strategies and treatment of volunteers. Samples of media announcements are an especially useful feature of this discussion.

The actual operation of a school volunteer program requires numerous decisions in many areas, including preparation of a budget, scheduling, and program development. Helgerson treats these challenges as exercises in problem-solving and outlines a step-by-step procedure for dealing with them. The suggestions for staff operations are similarly practical, and actual job descriptions are a helpful adjunct to the general commentary.

This handbook's greatest virtues are its abundance of pragmatic advice and many examples of materials. Theoretical issues are grounded in practical considerations, and there is a clear awareness of the intricacies involved in running a successful program.

261 **Doyle, James R.** "Digging for Human Treasure." *Educational Leadership,* 34, 1 (October 1976), pp. 26-30. EJ 146 508.

The most obvious beneficiaries of school volunteer programs are, of course, the children themselves. Students are offered new activities and the personal attention that can aid their academic progress. But the rewards of volunteer programs do not end with the students, for the volunteers may discover a new sense of worth.

In this enthusiastic report on the Teaching-Learning Communities project in Ann Arbor, Michigan, Doyle delineates some of the benefits senior citizens may reap from their involvement with the schools. The most significant of these gains, Doyle suggests, is a new sense of belonging. By sharing their skills in woodworking, photography, cooking, science, music, reading, and gardening, "grandpersons" rediscovered the value of their own abilities and renewed their interest in the world.

Doyle recognizes that a program involving senior citizens necessarily requires careful consideration of their situations. Health problems, for example, may rule out the participation of some volunteers, and transportation may entail careful coordination. But, as the Ann Arbor project indicates, there are no insurmountable difficulties, and the rewards are well worth the effort.

Doyle's high praise of the project and its director, Carol Tice, is not just polite professional flattery; he has adopted the Teaching-Learning Communities program in his own district, and he encourages other educators to do the same.

262 **Filipczak, James; Lordeman, Ann;** and **Friedman, Robert M.** "Parental Involvement in the Schools: Towards What End?" Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York, April 1977. 22 pages. ED 143 104.

This comprehensive review of the literature on parental involvement with education is an appropriate antidote to the many suggestive but insubstantial reports in the field. The authors cast a critical eye on the work done in four areas—volunteerism, parent-school communication, parent training, and policy-making—and find it generally lacking in rigor. The literature often neglects to describe the causal relationships between increased parental involvement and its results, leaving the all-important links to be inferred. Moreover, the methodologies usually do not allow for careful measurement, and there is a paucity of followup information on the effects of parents' participation.

In the field of volunteerism, for example, the literature extolls the virtues of various projects and outlines many ways of utilizing community resources. But for all the apparent success of these programs, little attention has been paid to measuring the outcomes or to evaluating the effect of volunteer activities on students, parents, teachers, and administrators. With such significant gaps in the scholarship, the authors cannot help but reserve judgment on the worth of volunteer programs; more than plaudits are needed to demonstrate the value of parental involvement in the schools.

A useful complement to this study's insistence on rigor is an eight-page bibliography.

263 **Hickey, Howard W.** "Community Education's Implications for Teaching." *Journal of Teacher Education,* 28, 4 (July/August 1977), pp. 19-20. EJ 166 777.

Even though community education may require teachers to drastically reassess their assumptions about the purposes of education, there is a growing movement to break down the walls between the community and the classroom. Learning, Hickey emphasizes, is an active process, and direct involvement with the community is the most effective means of broadening students' horizons. Volunteers can offer their expertise and experience as well as their concern, and community activities can offer the most stimulating classroom of all.

Hickey suggests the major obstacle to community education is not logistics, finances, or politics, but educators' attitudes. He argues that teachers must become planners, not instructors. They should continue to make the crucial decisions about the most rewarding environment for learning, but they must sometimes relinquish their podiums to the unacknowledged experts around us—the veteran next door, the musician across the street, or the service station owner down the block. The confines of the classroom should give way to visits to factories, streams, and stores. Not only will students become more interested in a given subject, but they will gain a practical understanding of its career implications. And the final reward, Hickey says, may be the

students' new sense of identification with the community where they live.

264 **Illinois State Office of Education.** *Because They Care: A Resource Manual for Volunteer Programs.* Springfield: 1976. 85 pages. ED 130 250.

This broad overview of school volunteer programs in Illinois offers a sense of the diverse possibilities open to administrators. Members of Illinois Regional Advisory Councils visited hundreds of schools before preparing their recommendations on the various projects in their state. This breadth is apparent in both the general discussion and the abundance of practical examples and information.

The manual gives helpful explanations of programs in Illinois, with special attention to the roles of the senior citizen, tutor, and aide in career education. An emphasis on concrete results is reflected in the advice on training and potential problem areas. The authors are mindful that successful communication among teachers, volunteers, and administrators depends on clearly stated goals and tasks, and they outline guidelines in those directions.

But it is the numerous examples of various program designs and procedures that are of particular value, samples of everything from evaluation and registration forms to letters and advertisements are included. With its lists of project directors' names and addresses, the report is a virtual almanac of volunteer programs in Illinois.

265 **Johnson, Simon O.; Guinagh, Barry J.; Bell, Afesa M.;** and **Estroff, Nancy.** "Developing a School Volunteer Program." *Theory into Practice,* 16, 1 (February 1977), pp. 17-22. EJ 163 153.

While almost half of the major school districts in the nation have instituted volunteer programs, their approaches have been all too unsystematic. Research on recruiting, training, and evaluation has been especially scant, and educators are left with descriptions of methods employed in a given district or homilies on the essential components of a successful program. Writing from their experience with the Florida Follow Through project, Johnson and his colleagues offer specific tested tactics that can be used in organizing any volunteer program.

A summary of basic questions asked by teachers, parents, and principals leads into succinct practical advice on recruiting, training, and evaluation. Johnson and his coauthors emphasize that potential volunteers are easy to identify, but recruiting them may prove challenging. Telephone calls, social gatherings, and word of mouth are all useful, but soliciting should be done in an organized manner. Business people, for example, may be a valuable resource, but they are often unavailable when they are needed most. A Follow Through project survey alleviated this problem by providing teachers with the information necessary to schedule visits by this important but elusive resource.

The treatment of training and evaluation outlines general principles of organization and offers advice on specific procedures. Training should address the objectives of the program as well as the activities expected of the aides. After the initial training and classroom visits by the project coordinator, followup workshops may offer an opportunity for dealing with the frustrations that are bound to arise in the early weeks of the program. Evaluation should be a continuing process, with a monthly assessment of performance and objectives. The Florida researchers also deal with some of the myriad details involved with developing a program; they suggest, for example, time limits, preferred locations, and even manners conducive to successful meetings.

The attention paid to both principles and particulars makes this a helpful model for organizing a volunteer project in any area.

266 **Lee, Robert J.,** and **Rubinstein, Robert E.** "Big Brother—Big Sister: A Public School Approach for the '70s." *Child Welfare,* 56, 5 (May 1977), pp. 333-38. EJ 162 783.

The Eugene (Oregon) schools' Big Brother-Big Sister program is designed to provide emotional support for elementary and junior high students who are having difficulties at home or in school. Lee and Rubinstein assign the success of the project to its unusual organization and staff supervision.

Volunteers are recruited from many sources—the local university and community college, the business world, the elderly, and the unemployed. After undergoing careful screening and training, volunteers are assigned to children whom they will see for at least fifteen hours a month. Their activities are not particularly dramatic or expensive: the volunteer and child may take a bike ride, watch television, bake cookies, or sew, for example.

The children's backgrounds are as heterogeneous as those of their big brothers and sisters; they come from all economic levels and from one- and two-parent families. The common denominator among the students is a sense of isolation. Volunteers are not, however, asked to work with emotionally disturbed, handicapped, or delinquent children.

Problems are bound to arise in the course of such a program, but continued contact between the staff and volunteers has kept misunderstandings to a minimum. Volunteers attend monthly

meetings where they can express their concern and test their ideas. Experienced big brothers and big sisters are on hand to advise newcomers, and problem-solving techniques are employed.

Although not foolproof, the program has garnered widespread community support and won new friends for the schools. Neighboring districts are already emulating the Eugene model, and Lee and Rubinstein hope that others will join them.

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267 **Mastors, Charlotte.** *School Volunteers: Who Needs Them? Fastback Series, No. 55.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1975. 45 pages. ED 103 983.

According to Mastors, community-based school volunteer programs, coordinated at the state level, can help problem-beset schools accomplish their goals. Without raising costs, such programs tap community resources to help schools provide adequate learning experiences and promote school-community rapport.

Mastors recounts the organization of LINKS (Laymen in North Kingstown Schools), a local community-based program that she directed, and VIRIS (Volunteers in Rhode Island Schools), a statewide coordinating organization that she now directs. Both LINKS and VIRIS are incorporated tax-exempt charitable organizations independent of the school system.

The successful experiences of LINKS and VIRIS show how a community can meet the challenges presented by financial problems, legal restraints, and staff resistance and can establish a volunteer tutoring program. Mastors gives an eleven-step process for the development of a volunteer program and specific guidelines for its administration. She also gives sample letters, evaluation forms, and a volunteer coordinator job description.

This publication is addressed to community members seeking to establish a self-governing volunteer program rather than to school administrators. Its discussion of program administration and its sample forms, however, can prove useful to school-based programs. The LINKS and VIRIS program models also offer alternatives to the typical school-based program.

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268 **Mott Institute for Community Improvement.** *The Use of School Volunteers.* East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1973. 10 pages. ED 109 443.

The problems in using school volunteers are, according to this brief but sound report from the Mott Institute for Community Improvement, "more than offset by the results—a better community in which to educate children and adults." Within a planned and imaginative program, volunteers can extend the teaching capacity of a school, bring unique skills to their service, and improve the climate of the community.

The bulk of this report covers the process of developing a program, from the initial determination of volunteer roles to evaluation. A general discussion of problems encountered in program development contains some useful suggestions. Concerning volunteer recruitment, for instance, the institute recommends the use of trial commitments of eight weeks rather than the typical indefinite commitment. This practice helps overcome the reticence of potential volunteers and gives both school and volunteer an established testing period of the volunteer's service. The institute also suggests that prospective volunteers be allowed to participate in the development of their job descriptions. If they can incorporate their interests and talents in their service, they more likely will find satisfaction.

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269 **National School Public Relations Association.** *School Volunteers: Districts Recruit Aides to Meet Rising Costs, Student Needs.* Arlington, Virginia, 1973. 68 pages. ED 079 257.

This thorough report provides an overview of school volunteer programs, guidelines for their administration, and examples of the practices of individual programs. The information gathered from over four hundred programs offers both a summary of common program concerns and practices and a full selection of individual ideas and insights.

Mixing facts and advice, the booklet covers the benefits and drawbacks of volunteer programs, their planning and coordination, the specific tasks of volunteers, volunteer recruitment, training and retention, and program evaluation. Five different programs receive attention, among them a large urban program, a comprehensive statewide program, and a cross-age teaching program. A concluding list of organizations and programs offers sources for further information.

This report can be helpful to schools considering the development of a new program and to established programs in need of new ideas. The discussion of possible volunteer tasks is particularly suggestive. Volunteers need not be limited to the standard clerical and tutorial tasks. They can provide such imaginative services as behavior modification play therapy, the training of children with poor perceptual motor skills, and the ombudsman-like handling of community complaints.

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270 **Ohio State Department of Education.** *Utilizing Volunteers for Children with Behavioral Disabilities.* Columbus: Division of Special Education, 1974. 28 pages. ED 105 690.

To promote the development of similar programs, this publication reports on the implementation and evaluation of a school program using volunteers to help behaviorally disordered children. Through the Franklin County Community Helper Program, volunteers worked individually with such children within the school to help bring about behavioral and academic growth. The helpers met twice weekly with the children for informal conversation, games, and academic tutoring. More important than any tutoring, however, was the development of supportive relationships between helpers and children.

The program was judged most successful in helping mildly or moderately disturbed children, particularly those who had scored high on the inadequacy-immaturity items of the Quay-Peterson

Behavior Check List. The most successful helpers were those who provided high levels of nonpossessive warmth and empathy.

Based on the experience of the Franklin program, the report presents guidelines for the establishment of similar programs, suggestions for the training of volunteers, and sample volunteer activities.

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271 **Oregon State Department of Education.** *Manual for Developing a Volunteer Tutoring Program.* Salem: 1974. 64 pages. ED 131 575.

An acronym for Every Student Cares about Personalized Education, ESCAPE is a University of Oregon program that assists children and encourages student involvement with the community. The project began on a modest scale but has since blossomed into such a wide-ranging program that it has been chosen for inclusion in the *Promising Practices in Oregon Education* series on innovative pedagogical techniques.

The descriptions of the project's structure, tutoring guidelines, personnel training, and teacher orientation contained in this manual provide not only an informative look at a particular program but also offer a model for districts with similar goals and needs.

First, the authors state the program's goals and outline an appropriate structure. Careful attention is given to the delegation of responsibilities, the specific tasks of the administrators, and recruiting techniques. The second section lays down principles that define the tutor's relationship with the teacher and pupil. They emphasize the practical problems of establishing rapport and planning a tutoring session. A reading list on basic approaches to education is a useful addendum to this section and a reminder that tutors need to understand the significance of their efforts in a larger context.

A section on personnel training is especially helpful; the authors outline the topics for weekly seminars and provide specific examples of techniques used in the curriculum. Finally, the report deals with the teacher's role in personalized instruction. The teacher bears the final responsibility for the pupil's progress; the support, experience, and guidance provided by the teacher are essential ingredients in a successful tutorial program.

The manual is noteworthy for its practicality. Concrete situations are given the attention they deserve and are discussed in a straightforward manner.

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272 **Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute.** *Volunteers in Education: A Handbook for Coordinators of Volunteer Programs.* Philadelphia: 1975. 134 pages. ED 117 341.

This valuable handbook, a revision of the popular 1972 *ABC's: A Handbook for Educational Volunteers,* offers comprehensive guidelines for community members and educators wishing to establish or improve school volunteer programs. It both discusses the goals of such programs and gives abundant specific advice that is adaptable to different local needs and situations. Commendably, the handbook is clear, organized, highly readable, and thorough. It gives indepth coverage to all the standard aspects of program development, implementation, and evaluation and also provides helpful discussions of funding sources and proposal preparation, several program models, and the use of volunteers in career education.

Typical of the handbook's thoroughness is its treatment of the orientation and training of volunteers. It lists possible orientation activities and elements common to preservice training programs, gives suggestions for developing a training program, and discusses training techniques and on-the-job orientation. It also provides an outline of a sample orientation program, a list of activities for continued training, and specific guidelines for training student volunteers through role-playing sessions and workshops.

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273 **Wyckoff, Lorna M.** "School Volunteers Face the Issues." *Phi Delta Kappan,* 58, 10 (June 1977), pp. 755-56. EJ 160 489.

In this editorial director's report on a 1977 National School Volunteer Program (NSVP) conference, Wyckoff notes that the very success of volunteer projects has unsettled many professionals. The relationship between the educator and the volunteer remains unclear and is potentially volatile. The author wonders, for example, what would happen if teachers went on strike. A massive volunteer program might well undermine the walkout and force teachers back into the classroom with their demands unmet. Recent history already includes examples of superintendents and principals who have tried to keep school doors open with the help of volunteer aides. There is also fear that these days of budget constraints may lead to the permanent displacement of professionals by unpaid citizens.

Wyckoff supports volunteer programs, but she insists they should not be allowed to threaten the teacher's position. She suggests that the solution lies in careful definition of the volunteers' role and their relationship to the professional educator. The NSVP's recommendation that volunteers remain on the sidelines during a strike is a step in this direction, but more study and guidelines are in order.

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19 Staff Development

ED163639

274 **Blakeslee, Jean C.** "Individualized Inservice Training." *Catalyst for Change*, 4, 2 (Winter 1975), pp. 4-8. EJ 110 970.

A unique inservice training program in Delaware, Ohio, allows each teacher to choose the particular ways he or she will improve teaching ability. Teachers choose such goals as improving classroom management or increasing student participation in more meaningful discussions. In the course of the twelve-week program, teachers are videotaped six to nine times as they present a lesson. They later view each fifteen-to-twenty minute videotape with a trained Inservice Training Leader who teaches them to analyze their classroom behavior and plan improvement strategy.

The program is based on the Inservice Strategy Model for Modifying Teaching Behavior developed by the Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory. As Blakeslee explains it, the plan rests on the belief that "self-directed change is more likely to produce persisting change." Because teachers choose their own goals for improvement, they realize that the program "is not something done to or for them, but rather something done with them." Staff members can participate in the program again and again as they discover new ways they want to continue their growth as teachers.

275 **Brainard, Edward.** *The Colorado Department of Education and the Development of School District Based Administrator Renewal Programs.* Denver: Colorado State Department of Education, 1975. 15 pages. ED 114 993.

In 1975, thirty-one Colorado school districts were planning or operating their own administrative renewal programs, primarily aimed at middle management educators who have completed their formal education. Brainard, of the Colorado State Department of Education, has reviewed these programs to identify the characteristics of effective administrator renewal programs.

Brainard maintains that the best programs allow participating administrators to select topics and problems for study that are related to their own job concerns and school improvement projects. Scheduling continuous sessions with followup activities works better than "one-shot" events. Small-group and individualized sessions are more successful than large workshops.

Brainard also presents the step-by-step activities that Colorado school districts have undertaken in planning administrative renewal programs. Many districts organize a collegial team (seven-ten local administrators who cooperate as consultants) to design a renewal program and analyze suitable problems for study. According to the author, this is a particularly effective innovation, since university professors or outside consultants may be too costly for many districts.

The report concludes with a list of goals and objectives adopted by the Colorado State Department of Education to support the development of administrator renewal programs in local school districts.

276 **Day, Barbara D.,** and **Jenkins, James W.** "North Carolina's K-3 Staff Development Program." *Educational Leadership,* 32, 5 (February 1975), pp. 326-30. EJ 125 015.

Although the staff development program described by Day and Jenkins is limited to a very specific purpose—K-3 continuous progress education—the innovative program includes valuable components applicable to all staff development efforts.

The statewide program includes summer institutes utilizing a team approach in which teachers, special education teachers, aides, supervisors, and principals who work together are trained together in new teaching techniques, human relations, and values clarification. Participants in the institutes are given an opportunity to use newly acquired techniques with students in a classroom setting.

Other components of the summer institutes are microteaching clinics utilizing videotape, a teacher resource center for creating materials, and workshops in curriculum areas. Staff meetings and evaluation sessions are held daily so that the program may be continually adapted to meet the needs of participants and staff.

Because employment for teachers in North Carolina has been extended to ten months, additional inservice training days are scheduled throughout the school year. This training offers workshops, courses, statewide seminars, and opportunity to travel to observe and participate in other programs.

277 **Devaney, Kathleen,** and **Thorn, Lorraine.** *Exploring Teachers' Centers.* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1975. 224 pages. ED 107 601.

Devaney and Thorn begin by describing teachers' centers as "young and homespun but attractive and apparently vigorous communities in which practicing teachers continue their professional education." The teachers' center can serve as a focus for staff development activities by providing a place where teachers can attend seminars, workshops, and demonstrations as well as exchange ideas, share problems, and explore and create materials for classroom use.

In a style that is lively and refreshing, the authors describe twenty-two teachers' centers, including information about "what goes on," style, setting, and programs. The authors insist on "emphasizing the apostrophe" in the term "teachers' center" because centers must be "responsive to teachers' own definitions of their continuing learning needs." Yet they do not rule out the possibility of successful centers that originate from and are supervised by administrators or school districts.

One such center, the Advisory Center for the Improvement of Education in Philadelphia, provides afternoon, evening, and Saturday workshops tailored to teachers' needs in such areas as crafts, active-learning math and science, and language arts. In addition, teachers are encouraged to drop in to exchange materials and experiences. The center has two full-time coordinators supported by the school district and is housed in an older school building.

278 **Doob, Heather S.** *Internship Programs in Educational Administration. An ERS Report.* Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1974. 28 pages. ED 098 706.

Intern programs in educational administration are becoming a popular way for teachers and other district employees to enter school administration, according to this Educational Research Service (ERS) survey of over one thousand school districts. Survey results indicate that only one-third of the schools presently operate intern programs in educational administration, though two-thirds prefer to hire administrators with intern experience. The surveyed districts tend to prefer district employees to university students when filling intern positions. Large school districts indicate more extensive experience with intern programs than do small ones.

Responding to the growing professional interest in intern programs for educational administration, ERS has assembled eleven models of school district intern programs in this report, selected on the basis of length of operation and variety. Although ERS makes no recommendations about the value of any one program, the differences in these models should present an interesting study to schools considering internship programs.

Some districts require interns to use many talents in carrying out their responsibilities, such as working in public relations, developing new instructional programs, and evaluating teachers. Other districts may relegate clerical responsibilities to interns, such as scheduling facilities, ordering and distributing supplies, and reporting on administrative meetings. Most intern programs do not offer salaries, though side benefits (such as preferred consideration for administrative appointments) are often specified in the program model. The districts that submitted models of intern programs to this report could have enhanced their value by providing information about how these programs are working.

279 **Duke, Daniel Linden.** "Developing a Comprehensive Inservice Program for School Improvement." *NASSP Bulletin,* 61, 408 (April 1977), pp. 66-71. EJ 162 122.

Duke presents a convincing argument for a comprehensive inservice program. He points out that each year thousands of teachers drop out of education as a result of lack of stimulation. Furthermore, their morale and continuing education are vital because they are daily working with students.

Unfortunately, many inservice programs lack provisions for involving teachers in the planning and evaluative stages. Nor do they make provisions for long-term commitment of outside experts or for comprehensive staff development and school improvement.

In an effort to overcome these handicaps, Stanford University and Herbert Hoover Junior High have developed a new inservice model. This came about as a result of a district order to move from the school's non-earthquake-proof building to a new open-space facility. Along with the usual problems, the move increased school

population and the need for bilingual and multicultural education.

To meet these challenges, work-study teams consisting of Hoover teachers, aides, and administrators, plus Stanford faculty advisers and research assistants, selected particular areas of concern, including language arts, social studies, open space, bilingual education, multicultural education, and community participation. Each team had a budget and was responsible for setting its own objectives and biweekly agenda. The district provided released time one afternoon per week for the teachers to work in their teams. Duke explains many of the team's plans of action in specific terms.

Duke is not content merely to hail the predicted success of the model; he concludes his article with a list of obstacles that must be overcome if the program is to prove viable over the long run.

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280 **Ehrenberg, Lyle M.,** and **Brandt, Ronald S.** "Improved Student Learning: A Necessary Goal of Staff Development." *Educational Leadership,* 34, 3 (December 1976), pp. 205-9. EJ 150 148.

Ehrenberg and Brandt present a well-organized approach to implementing a staff development program with the specific goal of improved student learning. The assertion is made that the current crisis in education may result from "inappropriate actions of educators" rather than from quality of materials, facilities, or financial restraints. Ehrenberg and Brandt believe that too often staff development programs do not have a strategy. "By strategy, we mean a plan consisting of a sequence of actions involving coordination of things and people to achieve an objective for which there is a stated rationale."

There is a three-part plan necessary for the success of any staff development program. During the preparation phase, the gap between the desired outcome and the "existing results" needs to be identified and the causes for the discrepancy analyzed. Only in this way can competencies and subsequent strategies be identified.

In the design phase it is essential to identify which competencies need strategies for knowledge development and which need strategies for skill development, the latter requiring additional practice time. Necessary activities for the learner and the instructor are also essential.

During the implementation phase, time must be allotted for training as well as for assessment. Money must be appropriated in accordance with district goals, and there must be a commitment to maintain the course of action decided on in the preparation phase.

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281 **Geffert, Hannah N.,** and others. *State Legislation Affecting Inservice Staff Development in Public Education.* Washington, D.C.: Lawyers' Committee for Civil Rights under Law, 1976. 190 pages. ED 129 031.

Geffert and others have compiled legislation in effect as of January 1976 that constitutes the legal structure for the development and implementation of inservice staff development programs for public education. Among the major elements of the

statutes affecting inservice staff development are collective bargaining, inservice activities, inservice subjects (including agricultural instruction, delinquency, and crime prevention), inservice authority, inservice participants, leaves of absence, and attendance requirements. Since collective bargaining has substantial impact on inservice governance, the relevant portions of state employee negotiation statutes are reproduced in chart form.

Staff development is here defined in broad terms. It includes formal inservice training as well as meetings, conferences, conventions, and gatherings held by educational associations.

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282 **Georgia State Department of Education.** *Certification Renewal through Staff Development.* Atlanta: Office of Instructional Services, 1976. 55 pages. ED 128 295.

This collection of supportive materials presents practical guidelines for the development of a set of standards for certification renewal. All the necessary steps for developing a model of staff development for certification renewal are logically presented and clearly defined.

The key factor in the initial stages of the staff development program is the identification of the needs of the local students. From here the teachers and administrators can get a clear picture of their individual needs assessment. Once these needs are established, the criteria for local staff development derive directly from the student needs. It follows, then, that the central premise on which certification renewal ought to be based is how well educational personnel demonstrate that they have met the needs assessed for the local students. It is important that personnel performance be evaluated in an actual educational setting.

The Georgia State Department of Education has included the administrative procedures necessary for the development of the program for certification renewal and the criteria and procedures for recommending renewal. Reprinted in the article is an actual recommendation for certificate renewal that could prove useful to those in need of specific renewal guidelines.

283 **Higley, Jerry.** *Inservice Training for Staff and Administrators. School Leadership Digest Series, Number 8. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 10.* Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 32 pages. ED 099 951.

Higley's paper is one of the most thorough sources on the development of inservice training for principals, providing a valuable bibliography of current literature on the topic.

Higley points out that there is a general agreement among professionals on the need for inservice training but that "there is considerable disagreement over what such training is supposed to produce." University education departments tend to assume that existing academic structures can identify administrative competencies and design training programs to develop them. Many practicing administrators claim that formal training programs, originating in universities or school districts, usually work to destroy leadership potential.

The author reviews current methods for the inservice training of principals, noting that "no startling new methods . . . have been introduced in the last five years." Principals have been encouraged to develop their skills through informal means such as systematic self-evaluation; reading, writing, and travel; and participation in community affairs. Formal academic programs have tended to emphasize the development of technical or managerial skills, human relations skills, and conceptual or problem-solving skills. Case studies, scenarios, simulation exercises, gaming, and sensitivity training have all become popular instructional methods for inservice workshops.

Higley stresses the problem of principals' prestige in current inservice programs, "which give principals an image of themselves as trainees, still students in subordinate programs." According to Higley, most literature on inservice education complains that existing institutions are too inflexible to create effective inservice programs. He believes that "loosening up" of the planning agencies is the "necessary first step toward revitalized inservice education."

284 **Klopf, Gordon J.** *The Principal and Staff Development in the Elementary School. Princeps Series: Developing the Role of the Elementary School Principal as an Educational Leader. Occasional Paper No. 4.* New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1974. 90 pages. ED 108 282.

Klopf's well-written review of staff development processes and techniques is of unusual depth and completeness. Although he doesn't provide a recipe for creating a staff development program, he introduces and evaluates every possible training technique from forums to exhibits to institutes to encounter groups. In addition, he provides theoretical information useful in getting a program off in the right direction. For example, his chapter on how adults learn includes sections on the difficulty of breaking through habitual and rigid reactions, the need of adults to enter into the planning of their own learning, and the adult's fear of failure; a concluding section presents training strategies for effective change in adults.

Klopf suggests that in order to begin a program, a principal may need to engage a consultant, attend seminars in planning, or at least read some of the literature on planning cited in the book's seven-page bibliography. Throughout, he emphasizes assessing the needs of the staff, school, parents, and community. For him, staff development is not something merely for teachers or for administrators but encompasses training and growth-producing activities for all segments of the school community.

285 **Miller, William C.** "What's Wrong with In-Service Education? It's Topless." *Educational Leadership,* 35, 1 (October 1977), pp. 31-34. EJ 167 856.

Miller finds the results of staff development disappointing mainly because the programs are generally directed at teachers without aiding key leaders, "those at the top," in developing new understandings and skills. Now, more than ever, there's a need to reeducate administrators because few new staff members are being hired; turnover of administrators is among the lowest of any educational group.

Miller analyzes what is necessary for meaningful staff development programs for administrators. He draws a careful distinction between training and educational experiences, both essential for effective programs. He defines the most functional kind of inservice education as that which provides the learner with observable results and feedback. Any criteria used for effective student learning must also be utilized at "the top" as well.

Miller further emphasizes the need for effective programs for administrators by pointing out their strategic position. They are able to make decisions and to influence teacher behavior through role modeling. This behavior, in turn, will be transferred to the students. Therefore, discovering the skills and qualities of effective leadership and how they can be learned are essential for administrative staff development. Miller values a leader's ability to unite and strengthen a group by always directing its members toward their common goal.

286 **Morris, John E.** "Relating Programs of Professional Laboratory Experiences and Staff Development." *Clearing House,* 49, 9 (May 1976), pp. 402-5. EJ 149 294.

Morris relates in authoritative and clearly stated terms how a program of professional laboratory experiences can aid staff development as well as improve the quality of education. Two specific outcomes are identified and followed by a discussion of their actual implementation.

The first suggested outcome is movement toward individualization of instruction in grades one through six. Morris shows how his plan, which demands a broad scope, involves all levels of the educational system. The key resource person is the highly skilled college supervisor of student teachers, who becomes a change agent with a vital interest in the success of not only each student

106 teacher but also the entire program. Similarly the student teacher has a vested interest in the outcome because he or she has not had to fit into previously set procedures and curricula, but has participated in their planning.

Morris's second outcome seeks the continual assignment of one college supervisor to the same school. In this way the principal and other teachers become involved in the plan and the public school student receives more opportunities for higher quality education. Further benefits include reduced teaching and decision-making loads for the classroom teacher.

Morris suggests that rather than have the school principal request the college supervisor, the procedure could be reversed. Through normal procedures the teacher preparation institution could make it a policy to assign students and a college supervisor to the same school for several consecutive quarters. During the first quarter, the college supervisor is busy opening communications with teachers and principal. During the second and third quarters, this person aids in needs identification and the selection of activities to meet those needs. Although this is admittedly a slow process, the benefits are great for all involved.

287 **National Education Association.** *Needs Assessment for Inservice Education.* Washington, D.C.: Division of Instruction and Professional Development, [1975]. 21 pages. ED 117 032.

Because "teacher-centered" programs are increasingly considered necessary for effective teacher staff development, knowing how to assess teacher needs is the first prerequisite to a good program. The NEA in this document provides thoughtful step-by-step instructions for deciding on the type of needs assessment appropriate and how to carry it out.

The document discusses several written and oral forms of needs assessment and lists advantages and disadvantages of each, including cost in time and money. A disadvantage of written forms is that questions may not be interpreted by all respondents in the same way; oral forms, however, make it difficult to get responses from a large number in a short time. The method chosen depends largely on the survey audience's receptiveness to it. While some groups of teachers prefer to fill in checklists or write responses to open-ended questionnaire queries, others will respond fully only in private interviews or open hearings. If the needs assessment questionnaire is the last of several questionnaires given in the same year, response will probably be poor.

A model inservice education questionnaire is included along with detailed instructions for conducting a needs assessment workshop.

288 **Range, Dale G.** "Staff Development: Still a Major Challenge for Middle School Administrators." Paper presented at National Association of Secondary School Principals annual meeting, New Orleans, January 1977. 12 pages. ED 136 363.

Range begins his paper by pointing out that the junior high has traditionally lacked specific training programs and is largely a waiting or training ground for high school teachers. Along with the emerging middle school movement, new demands and challenges are placed on middle school administrators. As a partial response to the middle school administrator's need to curb the "back-to-basics" movement so as not to destroy the objectives of the middle school program, Range presents a specific instructional strategy: sociodrama. Sociodrama is not only an excellent means of effecting change in middle school children, but it is also compatible with the "back-to-basics" movement.

The goals to be achieved through sociodrama include increased self-identity, development of rational thinking procedures, and increased competency in analyzing, classifying, and communicating.

Generally sociodrama follows a six-step procedure: (1) identification of the problem, having to do with personal relationships, (2) definition of the problem by means of a visual presentation, (3) selection of participants, who should be volunteers, (4) preparation, including a full discussion of the situation with the entire class, (5) presentation, a five-to-ten minute activity with the teacher in the background, and (6) discussion, involving the whole class. The discussion should focus on possible courses of action and their consequences.

289 **St. John, Walter D.,** and **Runkel, James A.** "Professional Development for Principals: The Worst Slum of All?" *National Elementary Principal,* 56, 4 (March/April 1977), pp. 66-70. EJ 157 046.

Traditionally the availability of professional development opportunities for school administrators has been a low priority. After the degree, additional training has been only a "hit or miss." But St. John and Runkel assert that becoming an administrator is a lifelong process and that one of the best ways to upgrade our schools is to upgrade the leadership competencies of every school district's administrative team.

The authors offer practical guidelines for avoiding professional obsolescence through effective professional development activities. School districts should not overlook their own personnel for conducting these activities; although moneys need to be specifically designated for administrative development, one way of curbing costs is to utilize key district personnel. St. John and Runkel give helpful suggestions for ensuring that administrators receive maximum benefit—including rewards and recognition—from their participation. They include excerpts from a sample school board's professional development policy.

The authors maintain that even if programs for professional growth are missing in a district, individual administrators have a personal responsibility for their own development. Useful suggestions are listed for how this growth might be accomplished.

290 **Seldin, Peter.** "The Twenty Day Program." *Clearing House,* 49, 4 (December 1975), pp. 175-78. EJ 133 933.

One of the biggest problems faced in planning staff development activities is finding time for them. Teachers are tired after a day in

the classroom and are protective of their precious weekend hours, yet when released time is provided for inservice training, student needs may be neglected. Seldin describes a program undertaken by an anonymous high school in New York State that managed to solve this problem.

In this program, twenty regular school days throughout the school year were set aside for staff development. Instead of releasing students during these days, a special program of lectures, films, workshops, and demonstrations was organized by a student-faculty committee. This program was presented by volunteer local resource people who were specialists in such areas as auto mechanics, film making, abnormal psychology, and judo.

Seldin relates that the staff development activities were planned by a faculty-administrative committee who enlisted the aid of the New York State Education Department's director of inservice training in exploring the availability of federal and state funds. The dean of the School of Education at a nearby state university and outside resource personnel were then consulted in planning minicourses, discussions, tutoring sessions, and workshops.

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20 Teacher Evaluation

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291 **Bushman, John H.** "Are Teachers Playing 'Statue' in the Classroom?" *NASSP Bulletin*, 58, 386 (December 1974), pp. 25-37. EJ 106 950.

Bushman outlines three teacher self-observation systems in which teachers "receive objective feedback" concerning their classroom behaviors and then "appraise their own teaching effectiveness" using this feedback. Bushman emphasizes that these systems "*must* be thought of as tools for the teacher to use in *self-appraisal* rather than for the administrator to use in evaluation." The administrator's role should be that of "instigator and resource person rather than director or teacher" of these systems.

The first system Bushman describes is the Teacher Self-Appraisal Observation System (TSA). The TSA defines thirty-one behavior categories under the subheadings methods, objectives, and verbal and nonverbal expressions. Before a lesson, the teacher "establishes a lesson plan using the TSA categories," indicating "the percentage of time he plans to spend in each category." Then the teacher is videotaped teaching the lesson. Afterward, the teacher codes the lesson by stopping the recorder at ten-second intervals to tally his methods, expressions, and achievement of objectives on a TSA coding card.

The Flanders Interaction Analysis is used by a teacher to determine the extent to which "he is or is not an authority figure." Using a ten-category scheme, the type and extent of verbal initiation and response behaviors in the classroom are marked on a scorecard. Another person can do the marking, or the teacher can evaluate himself if recording equipment is available.

The third system is the Teacher Image Questionnaire, in which students are asked to rate a teacher in sixteen areas such as knowledge of subject, fairness, and teaching procedures. To participate, a teacher requests the service from the Educator Feedback Center at Western Michigan University. The questionnaire is given to the class, usually by the principal, who then returns the material to the center. The center makes an image profile and returns it to the teacher only.

Bushman includes definitions of each of the TSA and Flanders systems categories, as well as a sample TSA scoring card.

292 **Drummond, William H.** "Involving the Teacher in Evaluation." *National Elementary Principal*, 52, 5 (February 1973), pp. 30-32. EJ 077 209.

"Systemwide evaluation should be focused on school-by-school achievement," states Drummond, while "the evaluation of individual certificated teachers should be done only by colleagues in the [same] building—with records kept only in the building." This approach allows schools to be more responsive to the specific needs of their clientele (parents and students), while creating an atmosphere more conducive to improving education.

To institute this kind of evaluation system, Drummond suggests that principals first "request the central office and the school board to excuse your building from the regular teacher evaluation procedures this year," and then "with the faculty, parents and older students, develop a strategy for school improvement."

A training program in observation techniques should be established for teachers and administrators. Evaluations should be organized on a "helping trio" basis, with a helper, a helpee, and a mutually agreed on observer. The helper practices "real helping skills: listening, paraphrasing, empathizing, providing psychological support," and so forth. The observer "periodically provides feedback to both on the clarity and directness of communications."

Each teacher and administrator should keep a record of what he or she does during the year. At the end of the year, the principal should give the central office "detailed, nonpunitive information about the work of the school and its faculty." These kinds of changes, contends Drummond, allow teacher evaluation to become a positive force in school improvement.

293 **Hall, George L., Jr.** *Assessing Staff Effectiveness: Practical Approaches to Meaningful Evaluation.* 1974. 12 pages. ED 097 338.

In this article, Hall describes how he applies his own individualized evaluation system to teachers with different years of experience.

The beginning teacher needs the most attention. Hall (a high school principal), together with the assistant principal and department chairman, first help the new teacher formulate reasonable long-range objectives. Evaluation during this period centers not on the teacher but on the objectives.

Next one or more of the evaluators observe the teacher in the classroom several times and call him or her in for consultation whenever they feel is necessary. They prepare a written evaluation and present it to the teacher, who is then asked to "write what he feels are his weak and strong points and what he would like us to do" to help him improve.

If the new teacher "has not had a course in individualizing and humanizing instruction in his undergraduate studies," Hall and the assistant principal "orient" the teacher by going through a student's complete profile with him and delineating what they expect. Since most new teachers have come directly from a college where lecturing was the main teaching method, they "debrief the teacher in order to get him away from this type of teaching."

The final evaluation of a beginning teacher is a conference in which Hall and the teacher compare evaluations of performance. Hall presents the teacher with a written evaluation while stressing improvement as the goal of evaluation.

Since teachers may be granted tenure after three years, Hall believes that the third year is the most crucial period for evaluation. He has a lengthy conference with the teacher at the end of the second year and another conference at the beginning of the third year. He helps the teacher set up objectives and offers recommendations for improvement. During the third year, he observes the teacher several times.

294 **Hickcox, Edward S.,** and **Rooney, Thomas.** *The Shape of Teacher Evaluation: A Survey of Practices in the Capital District of New York.* n.d. 57 pages. ED 120 259.

Hickcox and Rooney describe the present state of teacher evaluation and then offer their own alternative approach.

The authors conducted a small survey of evaluation practices in eleven schools that differed widely in size and type (rural, suburban, urban). The picture that emerged is a common one: evaluations were infrequent, particularly for tenured teachers; evaluations were usually done by one person—the principal, using standardized rating forms; and there was rarely a preobservation conference between evaluator and teacher.

The authors believe their alternative model can help overcome some of the problems inherent in current systems of evaluation. In their system, the supervisor and teacher meet prior to a classroom presentation and agree on the objectives of the lesson. They then plan together the classroom procedures that will achieve the objectives. Finally, and most importantly, they agree on what the evaluation criteria will be (student performance, classroom observation ratings, opinions of peers or students).

This approach alters the principal's role in subtle but important ways. Since objectives, procedures, and criteria of evaluation are mutually agreed on, the relationship between principal and teacher approaches that of professional colleagues. The principal's role shifts from "judge" to "guide."

Although this system is both simple and short on paperwork, the authors predict that it may be difficult to implement. They suggest that the principal begin the system with a small group of teachers (a teaching team if possible) and then slowly expand the system if it is a success.

295 **Igoe, Joseph A.,** and **DiRocco, Anthony P.** *Teacher Evaluation: Contract Procedures, Contract Clauses, Arbitration Cases. A Handbook for the School Administrator and Evaluator.* Albany: Thealan Associates, Inc., 1977. 129 pages. ED 137 921.

This well-written handbook has been designed to provide school administrators, particularly principals, with "a new insight into contract evaluation procedures." Igoe and DiRocco's evaluation of those procedures includes descriptions of a number of actual arbitration cases involving evaluation clauses. The work is replete with useful advice for administrators and school districts.

Most teacher contracts now have a teacher evaluation procedure clause, and most of the clauses have a similar format. First, there is usually a philosophical statement of intent, such as "the purpose of evaluation is the improvement of professional competence." The trouble with such statements is that their meaning is usually vague; arbitrators can interpret them in any number of ways. The authors suggest that districts "avoid statements of philosophy not only in evaluation but also in other areas of the contract."

The "major pitfall in the evaluation clause is the specified procedures," advise the authors. The specified procedures can include the number of evaluations to be conducted, the dates by which each evaluation must be completed, the length of observation periods, and the conditions for advance notice to teachers. The main point here is that each outlined procedure must be followed *to the letter*. Any infraction, no matter how small, can

lead to the reversal of a dismissal. The authors suggest making "the procedures as simple as possible by avoiding the overuse of words," because each new word makes the requirements more difficult to meet.

Many evaluation clauses "require that the evaluator prescribe a program of improvement for the teacher" if there are deficiencies in the teacher's performance. And nearly all clauses "allow the evaluated teacher to sign a copy of the evaluation." Again, the authors' recommendation is to follow the specified procedures exactly and to "never assume anything." Keep detailed records of the evaluations and make sure the teacher knows if he or she is deficient.

The major portions of the book are devoted to "sample procedures from negotiated contracts" from around the country and eighteen accounts of "arbitration cases which have resulted from contract evaluation procedures." Each specific case illustrates an important aspect of administering evaluation clauses and is followed by comments and recommendations from the authors.

296 **Kowalski, Joan P. Sullivan.** *Evaluating Teacher Performance. ERS Report.* Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, 1978. 234 pages. ED number not yet assigned.

This ERS report provides a good characterization of the state of teacher evaluation in the United States today. Included are a brief review of the literature on evaluation, the results of a 1977 survey of the nation's school systems, and extensive examples of evaluation instruments, contract clauses, and other materials pertaining to teacher evaluation that were provided by the 375 school districts responding to the mailed questionnaire used in the survey.

School districts were asked to describe the uses they made of evaluation reports. The most frequent response was "to help teachers improve their teaching performance," but the next five most frequent responses had to do with hiring, firing, promotion, and salary decisions.

About two-thirds of the responding districts indicated that they provided some kind of training for evaluators. The most common training methods indicated were inservice training, summer workshops, dissemination of handbooks and circulars, and the use of outside consultants.

Sixty percent of the districts "rate teachers against a prescribed checklist of performance standards at some point in the evaluation process," but "evaluation by objectives" methods are also becoming increasingly popular; about 44 percent of the districts now evaluate teachers on stated goals and objectives. Most districts require a postobservation conference between evaluator and teacher, and some also require a preobservation conference to outline goals for the lesson.

The survey also indicated that the principal is primarily responsible for evaluating teachers in most of the schools. This is more often the case in both small schools and elementary schools, while in larger and higher level schools assistant principals, supervisors, and department chairmen become increasingly involved.

In one-third of the districts, teachers are required to periodically evaluate themselves, while 3 percent of the districts reported that peer evaluation takes place in their schools. Student evaluations become part of the teacher's formal evaluation file in 2 percent of the districts, but less than 1 percent of the surveyed districts reported that parents participate in teacher evaluation.

Most of this publication is devoted to specific examples of contract clauses, school board policies, evaluation instruments, state laws regarding evaluation, descriptions of inservice programs, and other material regarding evaluation. Several tables illustrate the survey results.

297 **Manatt, Richard P.; Palmer, Kenneth L.; and Hildebaugh, Everett.** "Evaluating Teacher Performance with Improved Rating Scales." *NASSP Bulletin,* 60, 401 (September 1976), pp. 21-24. EJ 153 047.

Evaluation items are statements regarding a teacher's behaviors or methods that are rated by an evaluator according to their degree of validity. For example, the evaluation item, "The teacher uses varied teaching strategies and materials that stimulate student learning," might be rated as "superior," "acceptable," or "unacceptable" by an evaluator. The degree to which the rated item reflects the reality of a teacher's ability is that item's degree of validity or reliability as an evaluation tool.

The authors describe the work of an Iowa State University research team that has been attempting to identify the most reliable and valid evaluation items for use in "an improved rating scale" for teacher evaluation. The team examined 360 evaluation items and found ninety-four of them to be "sufficiently powerful to separate high teacher performance from mediocre performance," based on the judgment of "a jury of experts composed of teachers, administrators, and school board members from a large midwestern school district."

The authors have compiled thirty of these items, representative of the ninety-four valid items, into an evaluation instrument. They have used the instrument repeatedly and report that "preliminary

norming experience with the scale indicates that these 30 items are adequate to discriminate between teachers of high, medium, and low performance."

They suggest that school districts use an initial pilot year "to establish a benchmark of teacher performance." The resulting norms "should be developed and studied carefully by all parties," and then "levels of expected performance may be set."

The authors list the thirty evaluation items in a table. They offer suggestions for the use of the items as "improvement targets" for teachers after an evaluation.

298 **Natriello, Gary; Hoag, Margie; Deal, Terrence E.; and Dornbusch, Sanford M.** *A Summary of the Recent Literature on the Evaluation of Principals, Teachers, and Students. Occasional Paper No. 18.* Stanford, California: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1977. 69 pages. ED 141 407.

This paper deserves special note. The authors conducted an extensive, though not complete, survey of the literature on evaluation from 1965 to 1975. They briefly review the three hundred most worthwhile publications they found, which they organize into the four areas of administrator, teacher, student, and school (in general) evaluation. They review the works in each area under the headings theory, policy, and practice.

Natriello and his colleagues note several general characteristics of the literature on evaluation. First, evaluation is usually thought of as assessing either the product (for example, the performance of students) or the process (for example, teaching techniques). Second, the two general purposes of evaluation usually discussed are to improve teaching and to evaluate for tenure, firing, or promotion. Third, the literature addresses itself to who should evaluate (administrators only, or teachers, students, and parents also?).

The authors point out that evaluation is "presently [a] confusing and underdeveloped field," with most of the literature "not based on empirical research" and "parochial at best."

Theoretical literature on teacher evaluation is sparse, the authors report. They review ten publications in this area that discuss either the objectives of teacher evaluation or models of the evaluation process. Three of these articles are either bibliographic essays or annotated bibliographies.

Accountability is the theme of most publications dealing with policies of teacher evaluation. The authors review publications dealing with several facets of the accountability problem and describe several other bibliographies on the subject.

The literature on teacher evaluation practices is overly abundant. Typically, these publications describe existing evaluation systems or how-to-do-it instructions for setting up a system. Some deal with specific topics, such as objectivity or self-evaluation, while others propose general plans.

299 **Pulley, Jerry L.** "Teacher Appraisal: Informational Flow Vital." *Clearing House*, 47, 1 (September 1972), pp. 34-36. EJ 062 768.

The task of supervising instruction involves two often conflicting functions—evaluating teachers for promotion or tenure, and helping teachers improve instruction. When the principal alone supervises instruction, he "must serve in the potentially paradoxical roles of benefactor and executioner." However, when a subject matter consultant or department chairman is also involved in teacher supervision, these two conflicting functions can be separated.

Pulley argues strongly for a separation of the evaluating and helping functions whenever possible. Although the consultant could make valuable contributions to teacher evaluations, "the delicate relationship between teacher and consultant would be eroded if the consultant participated in a potentially threatening activity such as evaluation." Information flow between teacher and consultant should be as open as possible, but between principal and consultant the "flow of the types of information that might affect a teacher's employment status should be in only one direction"—from principal to consultant. Of course, the consultant must treat this information "with utmost confidentiality."

When a department chairman is involved in teacher supervision, his role also should be clearly defined—helpmate or informer, but not both. Pulley prefers that the department chairman *not* be involved in teacher appraisal unless absolutely necessary. "Past research studies," says Pulley, "seem to indicate that teachers tend to favor the building principal as their primary evaluator."

300 **Robinson, John J.** "The Observation Report—A Help or a Nuisance?" *NASSP Bulletin*, 62, 416 (March 1978), pp. 22-26. EJ 173 573.

Robinson presents the results of a survey of Connecticut high schools that use written classroom observation reports as part of their evaluation process. The survey's purpose was to find out how the observation reports are used and what value they have as perceived by teachers and supervisors.

The survey found that three-quarters of the state's high schools used written observation reports, but only one-half of the schools required such use. Copies of the report were given to the teacher and in many districts to the superintendent as well, but rarely to the board. Only about half of the teachers were observed twice or more during the year the survey was conducted.

Supervisors felt that the reports were valuable as aids for improving instruction, devices for communication between supervisor and teacher, and records of teacher strengths and weaknesses. Among the limitations that the supervisors perceived were that the reports were "too subjective," were "limited by the writer's competence," and were "useless without a conference."

Most of the observations were, in fact, followed by a postvisitation conference, but "the pre-visitation conference was not widely used." Supervisors "usually did not prepare themselves before observing a class" by reviewing either lesson plans or previous observation reports. The study also revealed that "there are no ongoing inservice training programs for supervisors to improve their observation techniques."

Over three-fourths of the supervisors, however, believed the

reports did help improve instruction. One-half of the untenured teachers and one-third of the tenured teachers thought the same.

Robinson offers several suggestions for improving the usefulness of observation reports: (1) Supervisors should "schedule one class period a day for the purpose of observing teachers," so that more observations will be conducted; (2) "School districts should offer inservice courses in observing classes to their supervisors"; (3) Previsitation conferences should become an integral part of the evaluation process.

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301 **Saif, Philip S.** *A Handbook for the Evaluation of Classroom Teachers and School Principals.* Bloomfield, Connecticut: Capitol Region Education Council, 1976. 180 pages. ED 133 371.

This handbook was prepared by Saif and teacher committees from three Connecticut school districts to provide model job descriptions and evaluation instruments for all Connecticut school districts. The job descriptions are detailed outlines of the responsibilities of teachers and principals. The evaluation instruments were developed "to match the job descriptions in order to facilitate the assessment of teacher and principal performance."

The teacher evaluation process specifies three conferences between the evaluator and the teacher during the school year. In a preconference at the beginning of the school year the teacher and evaluator agree on the categories of the job description in which deficiencies exist. (The major categories are planning and preparation, classroom management, instruction and interaction, assessment, competencies and professional development, and human relationships.) Improvement in a deficient area becomes a goal or objective for the year.

The evaluator and teacher next agree on the actions the teacher will perform to reach the objectives. Finally, they agree on how they will validate the achievement of an objective. They meet again in mid-year and end-of-year conferences to determine progress toward objectives.

The evaluation instruments in this manual are designed to measure the degree of achievement of the objectives. For each major category of the teacher's job description, there are three to five evaluation instruments. The teacher and evaluator choose one or more instruments as their measuring "tools" for each deficient area.

The evaluation instruments consist of various forms and questionnaires on which both evaluator and teacher indicate the extent to which they feel the teacher is fulfilling his or her responsibilities in a particular area. Saif provides twenty-six such instruments and encourages teachers and evaluators to create their own variations as needed. Included in this handbook are similar evaluation instruments and a job description for principals.

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302 **Salek, Charles Jerrold.** "Helping Teachers vs. Evaluating Teachers." *NASSP Bulletin,* 59, 392 (September 1975), pp. 34-38. EJ 128 825.

The recent rise of teacher unions as a means for winning benefits has helped create an adversary relationship between principals and teachers. In this climate of confrontation, a teacher often "perceives his principal's efforts to evaluate him as a personal attack."

A promising remedy, Salek contends, is the use of "non-directive supervisory conferencing." The object of this technique is to remove "judgmental thinking" from the evaluation process by creating an atmosphere in which both teacher and principal concentrate on a common goal—*improving instruction.* The principal's role becomes that of "helper" instead of "critic," a change that helps engender a "climate of reciprocal trust."

Salek outlines a six-step format for nondirective supervisory conferences. First, "the teacher explains his intentions for the lesson observed." Then he or she "describes what happened in the lesson in terms of intentions." During these steps the principal helps the teacher clarify and understand his intentions by asking appropriate, noncritical questions, such as "When you said (this) what did you envision occurring?" and "Did anything different from your intent occur? If so, what and why?"

Next, the teacher "looks at objective data on the lesson" compiled by the principal, and, if available, looks at or listens to transcripts or recordings of the lesson. Again, the principal asks appropriate questions, helping the teacher recognize specific behaviors and their relation to intentions.

In the fifth step, the teacher "evaluates the lesson in terms of the achievement of his intentions for it." Finally, if a change is needed, the teacher plans how he would reteach the lesson. During these steps, the principal continues in his helper role, never openly criticizing the teacher, but instead, by skillfully asking the right questions, helping the teacher evaluate himself.

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303 **Thomas, Donald.** "The Principal and Teacher Evaluation." *NASSP Bulletin,* 58, 386 (December 1974), pp. 1-7. EJ 106 946.

"Many school districts have devised elaborate evaluation programs based on unimportant items," states Thomas, superintendent of the Salt Lake City school district. In this article, Thomas criticizes four of these evaluation systems and suggests in their place an "individualized" evaluation system, aimed principally at teacher improvement.

One early system based evaluation on "good traits" such as grooming, speech patterns, enthusiasm, and emotional stability. Later systems based evaluation on the "skills and competencies" of teachers, such as "democratic behavior" and "ability to organize." Thomas claims there is "no convincing evidence that this kind of evaluation identifies good teaching."

The author fires similar criticisms at two more recently developed evaluation methods: the "product evaluation" method, in which teachers are judged by the achievement of their students; and the "service contributions" method, in which important factors in evaluation are "offices held, writings published, speeches given," and so forth.

In Thomas's evaluation system, he advises principals first to "meet with each teacher individually to establish what it is that you

expect from the teacher for the school year." Next, the principal would request the teacher to "program toward the objectives and to provide services that will attain the mutually-agreed-on objectives." The principal would either meet with or observe the teacher during the year to learn how he or she is getting along and then provide help if needed.

At the end of the year the teacher and principal would look at "validation data" to determine whether objectives have been achieved. Validation data might include standardized tests, student attitude scales, observation reports, videotapes, or teacher-made tests.

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304 **Thomas, E. Barrington.** "Criteria Employed by High School Principals in Evaluating Teachers in Victoria." *The Journal of Educational Administration*, 10, 1 (May 1972), pp. 19-33. EJ 063 187.

Do principals use the same criteria when evaluating teachers for promotion to another classroom position as they use when evaluating teachers for promotion to an administrative position? To find the answer, Thomas sent questionnaires listing thirty commonly used criteria of evaluation to the 244 high school principals in the state of Victoria, Australia. Principals were asked to indicate how frequently they used each criterion in evaluation.

The study found that the principals as a group employed "a common body of evaluative criteria" for classroom promotion and another, different common body of criteria for administrative promotion. Classroom promotion criteria tended to be "process" criteria—those relating to aspects of classroom behavior such as teaching technique and classroom discipline. Among the top criteria were "class control," "teacher-pupil relationships," "the energy, force and enthusiasm displayed in the teaching," and "pupil participation in lessons."

On the other hand, administrative promotion criteria were "presage" criteria, "those concentrating upon the characteristics of the teacher, such as knowledge, intelligence, industry." The top criteria here were "the degree of co-operation of the teacher with other staff members," the "loyalty and dependability of the teacher," "qualities of leadership displayed by the teacher," and the "personality of the teacher."

Thomas also studied the relationships between the evaluation criteria principals used and such factors as the principals' age and experience, the time the principals spent in classroom teaching, and the size and location of schools. For example, rural principals considered "the teacher's participation and standing in the community" a more important criterion than did urban principals. Principals who taught five to ten periods a week paid less attention to the teacher's "concern with the character development of pupils" as a measure of his quality. This, says Thomas, suggests that "principals closer to the realities of the teaching situation may be more cognizant of the difficulties of developing character and desirable attitudes in pupils."

Thomas includes in this interesting and well-written article several tables illustrating his findings and a sample questionnaire.

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305 **Thompson, June E.; Dornbusch, Sanford M.;** and **Scott, W. Richard.** *Failures of Communication in the Evaluation of Teachers by Principals. Technical Report No. 43.* Stanford, California: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1975. 27 pages. ED 105 637.

Principals may be able to improve both teaching and teacher satisfaction simply by increasing the frequency of evaluation. This is one conclusion of a study conducted to determine the differences in perceptions of principals and teachers regarding various aspects of teacher evaluation. The authors administered questionnaires to thirty-three experienced principals (at least one year in current position) in three districts, and to 131 teachers in one of those districts.

After compiling and analyzing their data, the researchers found that there was little agreement between principals and teachers regarding the extent to which teachers knew what information and criteria were used in evaluation. In other words, principals thought teachers knew more about the evaluation process than they really did. Principals also "reported communicating their evaluations much more frequently than teachers reported receiving them."

Some principals reported that they thought "teachers would be dissatisfied with *frequent* evaluations and therefore would resist them." But the researchers' data point in the other direction—"the frequency of communicating evaluations proved to be a major factor in teacher satisfaction with evaluations." Similarly, the study found that as the frequency of evaluation increased so did teachers' perceptions that the evaluations were helping them improve their teaching.

The authors selected two of the schools they studied for closer examination. The schools differed widely in the frequency of evaluations, a difference that was reflected in the widely differing levels of teacher satisfaction. Thirteen tables illustrate the authors' findings.

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306 **Tuckman, Bruce W.; Steber, James M.;** and **Hyman, Ronald T.** "Teacher Behavior Is in the Eye of the Beholder: The Perceptions of Principals." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York, April 1977. 18 pages. ED 137 928.

Do principals at different grade levels have different ideas about what makes an effective teacher? To answer this question, the authors asked thirty principals (ten each at the senior high, intermediate, and elementary levels) to characterize ten of their teachers' styles using the Tuckman Teacher Feedback Form (TTFF), and then to rate each teacher's overall effectiveness on a nine-point scale.

In addition, the three hundred teachers were asked to characterize their own styles using the TTFF, which measures perceptions of four components of teaching style: "creativity, dynamism (dominance plus energy), organized demeanor (organization plus control), and warmth and acceptance."

114 The study revealed that principals at the three levels perceived both "dynamism" and "warmth and acceptance" differently. Teachers rated "most effective" at the elementary level were rated lowest by their principals for dynamism and highest for warmth and acceptance. In contrast, "both intermediate and senior high principals perceived dynamism as positively related to teaching effectiveness," while senior high principals perceived warmth and acceptance as being negatively related to effectiveness.

The study also found that "teachers rated by their principals as 'least effective' " rated themselves "as high on all four TTFF dimensions as teachers rated by their principals as 'most effective'." Obviously, then, the least effective teachers "do not perceive themselves as ineffective."

The authors note that the discrepancies between principal and teacher ratings are greatest for the "least effective" teachers at the senior high level. The authors suggest that the larger communications gap at the senior level may be due to the larger and more complex structure of most senior high schools, which tends to insulate teachers and principals from each other.

307 **Weisenstein, Greg R.** *Teacher Evaluation: The Principal's Role.* Eugene: Oregon School Study Council, University of Oregon. *OSSC Bulletin,* 20, 3 (November 1976). 28 pages. ED 130 438.

"There is little question about the principal's obligation" to "account for and assure the quality of education in his or her school," states Weisenstein. But the extent to which the principal is involved in the actual evaluation process can vary. The principal can perform all evaluations himself, he can be a participant on an evaluation team, he can act as a consultant for teacher self-evaluation, or he can simply assign the responsibility to another staff member. In deciding his extent of involvement, he should consider his own "personality and professional background," as well as the receptiveness of the staff to different forms of evaluation.

Weisenstein favors evaluation by a team to evaluation by the principal alone. The latter approach opens the door to charges of prejudiced evaluations, while the input from additional evaluators provides a broader (and hopefully more objective) basis for evaluation.

Once a principal decides his extent of involvement in evaluation, he must choose, or help to choose, a particular evaluation instrument. Weisenstein urges principals to choose their instrument carefully: with the rise of accountability, principals will soon have to justify "each element of their evaluation instrument as having a direct purpose in their plan" to improve instruction.

When judging the adequacy of an evaluation instrument, Weisenstein suggests that principals consider the following factors: Relevance—Does the instrument measure a characteristic that is considered important? Reliability and objectivity—Is the instrument consistent from one application to the next? Validity—Does the instrument measure the behavior it was intended to measure? Fidelity—To what degree does the response to the instrument parallel the actual performance? Ease of administration—Is the instrument readily available and easy to use?

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213. EDRS. Specify ED 081 876. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
214. UMI. Specify EJ 122 522. $6.00.
215. UMI. Specify EJ 112 493. $6.00.

15. Public Relations Programs

216. National School Boards Association, 1055 Thomas Jefferson St., N.W., Washington, DC 20007. $5.00.
217. American Association of School Administrators, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209. Stock No. 021-00458, $2.50 prepaid, include $1.00 handling charge.
218. The Synergy Group, Inc., 53938 Sunderland, Utica, MI 48087. $2.95 prepaid.
219. UMI. Specify EJ 110 965. $6.00.
220. UMI. Specify EJ 137 969. $6.00.
221. National School Public Relations Association, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209. Stock No. 411-13335, $7.95 prepaid.
222. National School Public Relations Association, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209. $15.95 hard cover, $11.95 soft cover, prepaid.
223. UMI. Specify EJ 169 083. $4.00.
224. National School Public Relations Association, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209. Stock No. 411-13449. $4.75 prepaid.
225. New York State School Boards Association, Inc., 111 Washington Ave., Albany, NY 12210. $3.00.
226. UMI. Specify EJ 160 469. $4.00.
227. Journal no longer published.
228. UMI. Specify EJ 137 967. $6.00.
229. School Information and Research Service, 200 East Union Ave., Olympia, WA 98501. $2.00.

16. Reduction in Force

230. Available members only. Educational Policies Service/National School Board Association Policy Information Clearinghouse, 1055 Thomas Jefferson St., N.W., Washington, DC 20007.
231. UMI. Specify EJ 146 473. $4.00.
232. EDRS. Specify ED 149 435. MF $0.83. HC $4.67. Plus postage.
233. UMI. Specify EJ 177 715 and/or EJ 177 716 and/or EJ 177 717. $4.00 each.
234. Salary and Merit, P.O. Box 6266, Arlington, VA 22206. $2.50.
235. Capla Publications, 18 Overlook Ave., Rochelle Park, NJ 07662. $2.50.
236. EDRS. Specify ED 099 043. MF $0.83. HC $2.06. Plus postage.
237. UMI. Specify EJ 139 362. $4.00.
238. EDRS. Specify ED 137 904. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
239. Educational Research Service, Inc., 1800 N. Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. $3.00 prepaid.
240. UMI. Specify EJ 133 029. $4.00.
241. UMI. Specify EJ 131 690. $6.00.
242. UMI. Specify EJ 160 399. $4.00.
243. EDRS. Specify ED 150 731. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.

17. School Financial Elections

244. UMI. Specify EJ 175 705 and/or EJ 175 706 and/or EJ 175 707. $4.00 each.
245. EDRS. Specify ED 063 636. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
246. Publications Dept., Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1472 Kincaid St., Eugene, OR 97401. Free.
247. ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403. Free.
248. UMI. Specify EJ 137 985. $4.00.
249. The Western Political Quarterly, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112.
250. Institute for Educational Finance and the American Education Finance Association, 1212 S.W. Fifth Ave., Gainesville, FL 32601.
251. UMI. Specify EJ 077 857. $6.00.
252. UMI. Specify EJ 078 893. $6.00.
253. National School Public Relations Association, 1801 N. Moore St., Arlington, VA 22209. Stock No. 411-13535, $7.95 prepaid.
254. Educational Research Service, Inc., 1800 N. Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. $8.00.
255. National Tax Journal, NTA-TIA, 21 E. State St., Columbus, OH 43215. $3.50.
256. D.C. Heath & Co., 125 Spring St., Lexington, MA 02173. $14.50.
257. Review of Economics and Statistics, North-Holland Publishing Co., P.O. Box 211, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

18. School Volunteer Programs

258. UMI. Specify EJ 159 815. $4.00.
259. EDRS. Specify ED 122 173. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
260. EDRS. Specify ED 126 619. MF $0.83. HC $6.01. Plus postage.
261. UMI. Specify 146 508. $4.00.
262. EDRS. Specify ED 143 104. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
263. UMI. Specify EJ 166 777. $4.00.
264. EDRS. Specify ED 130 250. MF $0.83. HC $4.67. Plus postage.
265. UMI. Specify EJ 163 153. $4.00.
266. UMI. Specify EJ 162 783. $4.00.
267. Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., Eighth St. & Union

Ave., Bloomington, IN 47402. $0.75 prepaid.
268. EDRS. Specify ED 109 443. MF $0.83. HC not available. Plus postage.
269. EDRS. Specify ED 079 257. MF $0.83. HC not available. Plus postage.
270. EDRS. Specify ED 105 690. MF $0.83. HC $2.06. Plus postage.
271. EDRS. Specify ED 131 575. MF $0.83. HC $3.50. Plus postage.
272. EDRS. Specify ED 117 341. MF $0.83. HC $7.35. Plus postage.
273. UMI. Specify EJ 160 489. $4.00.

19. Staff Development

274. UMI. Specify EJ 110 970. $6.00.
275. EDRS. Specify ED 114 993. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
276. UMI. Specify EJ 125 015. $6.00.
277. EDRS. Specify ED 107 601. MF $0.83. HC $11.37. Plus postage.
278. Educational Research Service, Inc., 1800 N. Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. $5.00 prepaid.
279. UMI. Specify EJ 162 122. $4.00.
280. UMI. Specify EJ 150 148. $4.00.
281. EDRS. Specify ED 129 031. MF $0.83. HC $10.03. Plus postage.
282. EDRS. Specify ED 128 295. MF $0.83. HC $3.50. Plus postage.
283. EDRS. Specify ED 099 951. MF $0.83. HC $2.06. Plus postage.
284. EDRS. Specify ED 108 282. MF $0.83. HC $4.67. Plus postage.
285. UMI. Specify EJ 167 856. $4.00.
286. UMI. Specify EJ 149 294. $4.00.
287. EDRS. Specify ED 117 032. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
288. EDRS. Specify ED 136 363. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
289. UMI. Specify EJ 157 046. $4.00.
290. UMI. Specify EJ 133 933. $6.00.

20. Teacher Evaluation

291. UMI. Specify EJ 106 950. $6.00.
292. UMI. Specify EJ 077 209. $6.00.
293. EDRS. Specify ED 097 338. MF $0.83. HC $1.67. Plus postage.
294. EDRS. Specify ED 120 259. MF $0.83. HC $3.50. Plus postage.
295. Thealan Associates, Inc., 15 Computer Dr., West, Albany, NY 12205. $14.95.
296. Educational Research Service, Inc., 1800 N. Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. $17.50.
297. UMI. Specify EJ 153 047. $4.00.
298. EDRS. Specify ED 141 407. MF $0.83. HC $3.50. Plus postage.
299. UMI. Specify EJ 062 768. $6.00.
300. UMI. Specify EJ 173 573. $4.00.
301. EDRS. Specify ED 133 371. MF $0.83. HC $10.03. Plus postage.
302. UMI. Specify EJ 128 825. $6.00.
303. UMI. Specify EJ 106 946. $6.00.
304. UMI. Specify EJ 063 187. $6.00.
305. EDRS. Specify ED 105 637. MF $0.83. HC $2.06. Plus postage.
306. EDRS. Specify ED 137 928. MF $0.83. HC not available. Plus postage.
307. Oregon School Study Council, 124 College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403. $1.50.